

SUPPLEMENT



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[WITH TWO SUPPLEMENTS, 1s.]

THE WAR ON THE DANUBE.

(From our Special Correspondent.)

[We have received the following from our Special Correspondent at the seat of the war, and find by the post mark at Belgrade that it took twelve days to travel from Schumla to that place].

SCHUMLA, May 3, 1854.

I take the opportunity of a courier to Widdin to give you the latest intelligence from this place. We hear that some days since the town of Fokstscham, in Moldavia, was burnt by accident, and the Russians lost all their stores, ammunition, and provisions. Fokstscham was the head-quarters of their commissariat. The fire commenced in the hospital, and spread so quickly, that it could not be stemmed. Only a few houses, I am told, remain. Since my last letter was dispatched, the Russians have bombarded Silistria, but have not done much damage. Their armed batteries are too far to do any serious damage, unless the river be crossed. This the enemy has not done.

The greatest astonishment has been felt here at the news contained in the London journals of the 13th ult. The departure of the Prussian Ambassador is looked upon as a prelude to warlike preparations against England, and, consequently, against Turkey. There are many Prussian officers in the Turkish service; and the news has taken them by surprise after the energetic speech of M. Von Bonin in the Chamber, and the conditions with which the granting of extraordinary supplies was clogged by that assembly.

The British fleet, which left Odessa on the 26th ult., has gone to Sebastopol, but only for the purpose of blockade. It is supposed that they will make no attempt at bombardment. The details of the affair at Odessa have reached this place, and astonished us on account of the small loss sustained by the combined squadron. The steamers which acted were so worked as to steam round a circle and to fire as they steamed. This, I believe, is a novelty in the art of warfare, which is highly interesting to note.

We do not, as yet, know here whether the French Ambassador has left Constantinople or not. But it is generally supposed that he has, not perhaps for the reasons given, but because for some time past he has been on the eve of a recall.

Mebram Pacha, or rather, Colonel Cannon, has left this on a com-

plimentary mission from Omer Pacha to the British and French Generals.

Prince Napoleon Bonaparte, who commands a French division, is daily expected at Varna, from whence he will come and visit this place.

MAY 6.—I informed you, in a previous letter, of the advance of the Turks into Little Wallachia, consequent on the retreat of the Russians from that portion of the ground hitherto occupied by them. I told you that

the Turkish forces, having advanced as far as Balleschdi, and found no enemy before them, had returned again with their main force to Kalafat, and contented themselves with advancing their outposts. Since those operations took place, orders were dispatched from hence to the Commander-in-Chief in Kalafat, to the effect that the troops should advance from thence and occupy Little Wallachia as fast as the Russians evacuated it. Accordingly, on Monday, the 1st of May, a corps of cavalry, under Skender Bey, advanced to Radovan, which was found occupied by some Russian horse and Cossacks. Skender Bey, at the head of his men, charged into the place with such impetuosity that the enemy retired almost immediately, losing 100 men killed, twelve prisoners, and sixty horses. In consequence of this success, Skender Bey has been raised from the rank of Lieut.-Colonel to that of Colonel.

I hear that, on Wednesday last, the 3rd inst., an engagement took place before Nicopolis, between the Russians and the Turks. I have, however, no details of the engagement, and therefore merely notify the fact.

THE

BASHI-BOZOUKS.

THE Bashi-bozouks are an "institution" (if we may so far profane the word) of the past, a relic and evidence of Oriental barbarism, which it will take all the reforming energies of the Abdul-Medjid dynasty, backed by the force of example, set by his Western Allies, to subdue or improve. What the "Janissaries" were to the capital the Bashi-bozouks are to the provinces: a voluntary and irregular band of marauders, who, under pretence of fighting for their Sovereign, commit every act of brigandage and atrocity upon their unfortunate, unarmed fellow-subjects. In the hope of pay or plunder, those fierce and untameable bands have gathered in great numbers from all parts of the wide Ottoman empire to the defence of the sacred standard of Islamism; creating, we apprehend, more trouble and difficulty to the regular army of Omer Pacha than they can be expected to do good. Armed in all sorts of fashions by themselves, or wholly unarmed, as the case may be, they, for a trifling monthly pay, find their own subsistence (how and where the cry of the helpless will too often tell), and, ready to turn their hand to anything, have sometimes been of use in light skirmishing operations, but in the regular movements of the battlefield, in the face of, or in connection with, dis-



A BASHI-BOZOUK.—FROM A DRAWING BY JAMES ROBERTSON, ESQ., OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

plined troops, they can be of no use. It has been urged as a plea in extenuation for the numberless enormities committed by the Bash-bozouks, that they are in arrears of pay, and have nothing but their own industry, and their chances of the road, to depend upon for their subsistence. There may be something in this apology as far as plunder goes, but nothing can be said for the shocking cruelties with which their acts of robbery have been accompanied; and Omer Pacha has found it necessary to make some severe examples from amongst their numbers, both to deter others from similar crimes, and as an example to his own regular troops.

From the last accounts from Constantinople, it appears that measures are about to be taken—measures imperatively necessary now that the operations of the war are about to be carried on upon a truly European scale, to rid the Ottoman cause of these dangerous allies, or at least effectually to curbe their evil propensities. By virtue of an arrangement between the Commanders-in-Chief of the three armies, with Marshal St. Arnaud at their head, General Jousouf was to take the command of the Bash-bozouks; and their officers and sub-officers were also to be French. The Bash-bozouks who do not choose to serve under these conditions will be sent to Gallipoli; these who do will have to mind their p's and q's.

THE TREATY BETWEEN ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND TURKEY.

(From the *Moniteur*.) PARIS, May 23.

Napoleon, by the grace of God and the national will, Emperor of the French.

To all present, and to come, greeting:
On the report of our Minister the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, We have decreed and decree as follows:—

Art. 1.—A treaty of alliance, destined to guarantee the integrity and independence of the Ottoman Empire, having been signed at Constantinople on the 12th of March of the present year 1854, between the French Empire, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Sublime Ottoman Porte, this treaty having been ratified, and the respective ratifications having been exchanged on the 8th of May, the said treaty, the tenor of which follows, will receive its full and entire execution.

TREATY.

His Majesty the Emperor of the French and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland having been invited by his Imperial Majesty the Sultan to aid him in repelling the aggression directed by his Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias against the territories of the Sublime Ottoman Porte—an aggression by which the integrity of the Ottoman Empire and the independence of the throne of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan are menaced; and their said Majesties, being fully persuaded that the existence of the Ottoman Empire, within its actual limits, is essential to the maintenance of the balance of power between the States of Europe, and having, in consequence, consented to give to his Imperial Majesty the Sultan the assistance he has asked for this object, it has appeared fit to their said Majesties, and to his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, to conclude a treaty, in order to declare explicitly their intentions, agreeably to that which precedes, and to regulate the manner in which their said Majesties will lend assistance to his Imperial Majesty the Sultan.

With this view their said Majesties and H. I. M. the Sultan have named as their plenipotentiaries:—

Baraguy d'Hilliers, Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, and Mustapha Redschid Pacha.

Art. 1. His Majesty the Emperor of the French, and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, having already, at the request of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, ordered powerful divisions of their naval forces to repair to Constantinople, and to extend to the Ottoman territory and flag the protection that circumstances would permit, their said Majesties engage, by the present treaty, to co-operate still further with his Imperial Majesty the Sultan for the defence of the Ottoman territory, in Europe and Asia, against the Russian aggression, and employing for this end such a number of their land troops as may appear necessary for attaining this object; which land troops their said Majesties will forthwith dispatch towards such and such points of the Ottoman territory as shall be judged expedient; and his Imperial Majesty the Sultan agrees that the English and French land troops, thus dispatched for the defence of the Ottoman territory, shall receive the same friendly reception, and shall be treated with the same consideration as the French and British naval forces already employed for some time in the Turkish waters.

Art. 2. The high contracting parties engage, each on his part, to communicate reciprocally to each other, without loss of time, every proposition that one of them might receive from the Emperor of Russia, whether directly or indirectly, with a view to the cessation of hostilities, of an armistice or peace; and his Imperial Majesty the Sultan engages, moreover, to conclude no armistice, and to enter into no negotiation for peace, nor to conclude any preliminary of peace, nor any treaty of peace, with the Emperor of Russia, without the knowledge and consent of the high contracting parties.

Art. 3. As soon as the object of the present treaty shall have been attained by the conclusion of a treaty of peace, his Majesty the Emperor of the French and her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland will make arrangements at once for withdrawing immediately all their military and naval forces employed for realising the object of the present treaty, and all the fortresses or positions in the Ottoman territory that shall have been provisionally occupied by the military forces of France and England shall be restored to the authorities of the Sublime Ottoman Porte within the space of forty days, or sooner, if possible, to date from the exchange of the ratifications of the treaty by which the present war shall be terminated.

Art. 4. It is understood that the auxiliary armies shall preserve the faculty of taking such part as may appear suitable in the operations directed against the common enemy, the Ottoman authorities, whether civil or military, not claiming to exercise the least control over their movements; on the contrary, all aid and facility shall be afforded them by these authorities, especially for their disembarkation, their marching, dwelling or encampment, their subsistence and that of their horses, and for their communications, whether they may act together or may act separately.

It is understood, on the other hand, that the commanders of the said armies engage to maintain the strictest discipline among their respective troops, and will cause to be respected by them the laws and usages of the country.

It is of course understood that property is to be everywhere respected. It is, moreover, understood on either side that the general plan of the campaign shall be discussed and agreed upon between the Commanders-in-Chief of the three armies; and that if a considerable part of the Allied troops should be in line with the Ottoman troops, no operation can be executed against the enemy without having been previously concerted with the Commanders of the Allied forces. Lastly, due attention shall be paid to every requirement, relative to the wants of the service, addressed by the Commanders-in-Chief of the auxiliary troops, whether to the Ottoman Government through the medium of their respective Embassies, or, in case of urgency, to the local authorities, unless paramount objections, distinctly explained, may prevent its execution.

Art. 5. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Constantinople within the space of six weeks, or sooner if possible, to date from the day of signature.

In faith of which, &c. NAPOLEON.

THE TREATY BETWEEN AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.

The following is a translation, from the original German, of the defensive and offensive treaty between Austria and Prussia. The military, or so-called "Secret Stipulations," which contain the eventualities spoken of in the convention, are not annexed:—

OFFENSIVE AND DEFENSIVE TREATY BETWEEN PRUSSIA AND AUSTRIA.

His Majesty the King of Prussia and his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, penetrated with profound regret at the fruitlessness of their previous efforts to avert the outbreak of war between Russia on the one side, and Turkey, England, and France on the other; considering the moral obligations imposed on them by having signed the last Vienna protocol; seeing the constant augmentation of military measures on both sides, and the increasing dangers emanating therefrom to the general peace; persuaded as to the high mission which, on the threshold of a future, is allotted to them and to Germany, intimately allied with both States, in and for the interests of European welfare; have resolved to unite—during the existence of the war which has broken out between Russia on the one side, and Turkey, France, and England on the other—in a defensive and offensive alliance; and have named for the conclusion thereof the following Plenipotentiaries:—

His Majesty the King of Prussia, his Minister-President Baron von Manteuffel, &c.

His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, his Actual Privy Councillor Baron von Hesse, and his Actual Privy Councillor Count Thun von Hohenstein. The same after exchanging their full powers, found in due order, agreed upon the following points:—

Art. 1. His Majesty the King of Prussia and his Imperial Apostolic Majesty reciprocally guarantee to each other the possession of their German and non-German territories, so that any attack made upon the territory of the one, no matter whence it may come, shall be regarded as an hostile attack upon the territory of the other.

Art. 2. In the same manner the high contracting parties hold themselves bound to safeguard the interests of Germany from all and every inroad, and regard themselves, consequently, as bound to resist every attack upon any portion of their territory, in case that one of them should, in accord with the other, find itself required to move (*voranzugehen*) in defence of German interests. Agreement as to the initiative (*Eintritt*) of the eventuality just mentioned, as well also as to the extent of assistance to be afforded, shall form the subject of special arrangements, which are to be considered as integral portions of the present treaty.

Art. 3. In order to give the necessary weight and strength to the offensive and defensive treaty concluded by them, the two great German Powers bind themselves, in case of need, to hold a portion of their military force fully prepared for war, at given epochs and at given points, to be determined between them. Special resolutions shall also ensue as regards the time, extent, and mode of employing this military force.

Art. 4. The high contracting parties will invite all German States to adhere to this alliance in such measure as is provided for by Art. 47 of the Vienna concluding Acts, so that the legal federal obligations shall receive such extension by adhering States as the present treaty points out.

Art. 5. Neither of the high contracting parties will, during the existence of this alliance, conclude any separate treaty whatever with other States which does not fully harmonise with the principles of the present treaty.

Art. 6. The present treaty shall be submitted as soon as possible, for the ratification of the august Sovereigns.

VON MANTEUFFEL.
VON HESSE.
VON THUN.

Done at Berlin, April 20, 1854.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLE TO THE OFFENSIVE AND DEFENSIVE TREATY CONCLUDED BETWEEN AUSTRIA AND PRUSSIA.

According to the stipulations of Art. 2 of the treaty concluded this day between his Majesty the King of Prussia and his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, relative to arriving at an offensive and defensive alliance, the more explicit understanding as to the initiative of the eventuality whereon the action of one high contracting party for the common defence of the territory of the other shall be grounded, will form the subject of special arrangements to be considered as integral portions of the principal treaty.

Their Majesties have not been able to overlook (*haben sich die Erwägung nicht entziehen können*) the consideration that the indefinite prolongation of the occupation of his Highness the Sultan's territory on the Lower Danube by Russian troops will endanger the political, moral, and material interests of the whole German Confederation, as well as of their own States, and this in so much higher degree, the further Russia extends her war operations over Turkish territory. The august Courts of Austria and Prussia are united in the wish to avoid, if possible, all participation in the war that has broken out between Russia on the one side, and England, France, and Turkey on the other; and at the same time to aid in the re-establishment of general peace. They specially consider the explanations recently given by the Court of St. Petersburg, at Berlin, whereby Russia appears to consider the original cause of occupying the Principalities as set aside by the concessions now made to, and, in many respects, carried out in favour of, the Porte's Christian subjects, as a powerful element of pacification, which they could only deeply deplore were they to see it deprived of further practical influence. They therefore hope that the expected replies of the St. Petersburg Cabinet to the Prussian propositions, transmitted to it under date of the 8th inst. will offer the required security for the speedy withdrawal of the Russian troops from the Turkish territory. In the event that these hopes should be disappointed, the Plenipotentiaries before mentioned—namely, on the part of his Majesty the King of Prussia, his Minister-President and Minister for Foreign Affairs, Otto von Manteuffel; on the part of his Majesty the Emperor of Austria, his Actual Privy Councillor Lieut.-General and Quartermaster-General Heinrich Baron von Hesse, and his actual Privy Councillor and Chamberlain Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the Prussian Court, Frederick Count of Thun, Hohenstein, have determined upon the following more special engagement, as regards the initiative, in the case designated in Art. 2 of the Treaty of Alliance of this day:—

SINGLE ARTICLE.

The Imperial Austrian Legation will, on its part, address to the Imperial Russian Court propositions (*Eröffnungen*), having for object to procure from his Majesty the Emperor of Russia the requisite orders for the suspension of all further advance of his army into the Turkish territory, as well as to obtain from his Majesty complete (*vollgültige*) securities for the speedy evacuation of the Danubian Principalities. The Prussian Government will, with reference to its representations already transmitted to St. Petersburg, again energetically support these propositions.

Should the replies of the Imperial Russian Court, contrary to all hope, be of such kind that they should not afford complete tranquillity as regards the two points aforementioned, then will one of the contracting parties, in order to obtain the same, adopt measures, under the stipulation of Art. 2 of the offensive and defensive treaty concluded this day, to the effect that every hostile attack upon the territory of one or both high contracting parties shall be repulsed by the other by all the military force at its disposal.

An offensive action on the part of both (*Ein offensives beiderseitiges Vorgehen*) would, however, be first occasioned by the incorporation of the Principalities, or through an attack or passage of the Balkan, on the part of Russia.

The present agreement shall be submitted to the ratifications of the august Sovereigns simultaneously with the treaty just mentioned.

BARON OTTO FEDOR VON MANTEUFFEL.
HENRY BARON VON HESSE, Lieut.-General.
F. VON THUN.

Done at Berlin, April 20, 1854.

CIRCASSIANS IN PRUSSIA.—There are at present no less than six Circassian chiefs in Prussia, the last remains of a party of sixteen, who, having been made prisoners by the Russians, accepted service in the army of the Czar. Having afterwards taken advantage of a favourable opportunity, they crossed the Russian frontier and went into Prussia. In that kingdom they were summoned to lay down their arms and give up their horses. With Circassian courage they refused; they were surrounded; ten were killed, and six were made prisoners. These survivors were imprisoned for four years, and their term of imprisonment has recently expired. The Prussian Government now allows them a maintenance, and will neither give them up to Russia, nor permit them to leave Prussia. These six Circassian chiefs, if they have in their own country a rank at all commensurate to their courage, may be worth something to the Foreign Office.

MELANCHOLY DEATH OF LIEUT. W. LEAR MACNISH.—Letters from Constantinople of the 20th inst. supply the following painful details of the lamentable death of this gallant officer:—May 19, two officers of the 93rd Highlanders, Ensign Crowe and the unfortunate gentleman above named, were returning from the Soutari barracks to the encampment where their regiment is quartered. A heavy storm, accompanied by lightning and torrents of rain, broke out, and turned the little ravine which borders the barracks to the north-west into a roaring torrent. In crossing this ravine, which in the daytime was perfectly dry, these two officers were carried away. Ensign Crowe managed to save himself, but Lieutenant Macnish has not since been heard of, and it is feared that he was washed into the sea. At the barracks a cry was heard about half-past ten o'clock last night, but nobody suspected what it was; and indeed it is very doubtful whether efficient help could have been sent in time, as the night was very dark, and before any person could have arrived at the spot no doubt the unfortunate gentleman had been carried down towards the sea, and was beyond the reach of human aid.

THE NEW QUADRUPLE ALLIANCE.

The following is a translation of the Protocol (No. 6) of a Conference held at the Office for Foreign Affairs at Vienna on the 23rd of May, 1854, between the representatives of Austria, France, Great Britain, and Prussia:—

The undersigned Plenipotentiaries have held it conformable to the arrangements contained in the Protocol of the 9th of April to meet in conference to communicate reciprocally and record in one common act the conventions concluded between France and England on the one hand, and between Austria and Prussia on the other, upon the 10th and 20th of April respectively, in the present year.

After a careful examination of the aforesaid conventions, the undersigned have unanimously agreed—

1. That the convention concluded between France and England, as well as that signed on the 20th of April between Austria and Prussia, bind both of them in the relative situations to which they apply to secure the maintenance of the principle established by the series of Protocols of the Conference of Vienna.

2. That the integrity of the Ottoman Empire and the evacuation of that portion of its territory which is occupied by the Russian army are and will continue to be the constant and invariable object of the union of the Four Powers.

3. That, consequently, the acts communicated and annexed to the present Protocol correspond to the engagement which the Plenipotentiaries had mutually contracted on the 9th of April to deliberate and agree upon the means most fit to accomplish the object of their union, and thus give a fresh sanction to the firm intentions of the Four Powers represented at the Conference of Vienna, to combine all their efforts and their entire resolution to accomplish the object which forms the basis of the union.

BUOL SCHAUENSTEIN.
BOURQUENEY.
WESTMORELAND.
ARNIM.

[The conventions of the 10th and 20th of April are annexed.]

The following is a true translation of the identical and collective memorandum relative to the Eastern question and Austro Prussian Convention, which the Vienna and Berlin Cabinets have transmitted to their Envoys at the Diet:—

The Envoys are charged with the following communication:—When the complications that had arisen in the East were discussed (*besprochen*) in this high assembly upon the 10th of November last, war between Russia and Turkey had, it is true, already broken out; but the Cabinets of Vienna and Berlin were still entitled to cherish and express the hope that the united efforts of European Powers would succeed in bringing about an understanding between the belligerent parties, and in maintaining the blessings of peace for the rest of Europe.

This hope has not, unfortunately, arrived at fulfilment. France and Great Britain have taken part as allies (*Bundesgenossen*) of Turkey in the war against Russia; and Austria, which had then (*damals*) strengthened its pacific hopes, even by readily reducing its army, has deemed it necessary now to place a considerable military force upon the southern frontier of her empire.

The High Diet (*Bundesversammlung*) will not except a wearisome (*erschöpfende*) detail of negotiations and facts, which have preceded the present state of affairs. These appertain partly to general publicity, or have been partly brought to the knowledge of individual Governments.

Few observations will suffice to indicate and justify the point of view whence Austria and Prussia think they must make (*machen zu müssen glauben*) the present communication to their high Allies.

Both Cabinets have agreed with (*sich begegneten*) those of Paris and London in the conviction that the conflict between Russia and Turkey could not be prolonged without affecting (*berühren*) the general interests of Europe, and those also of their own States. They acknowledged in common that the maintenance of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and the independence of the Sultan's Government, are necessary conditions of the political balance, and that the war should, under no circumstances, have for result any change in existing territorial positions. The respective declarations and assurances of the belligerent parties offered a prospect of success to the mediatory activity of the Four Powers represented in conference at Vienna. The particulars of these negotiations and the grounds of their failure are apparent from the five protocols of this conference, which are herewith laid before the High Diet. The last of these shows that, albeit France and Great Britain have meantime entered into the war against Russia, the four Cabinets invariably adhere to the principles proclaimed heretofore by them in common, and have united in regard to the basis (*princip*) on which to deliberate in common as relates to the appropriate (*geeigneten*) means for attaining the object of their endeavours (*Einvernehmen*).

The august Courts of Vienna and Berlin have acknowledged, under these serious circumstances, an augmented summons to avail themselves conscientiously of the relations of most intimate confidence and long-preserved friendship, which bind one to the other, to test the dangers which have emanated from existing circumstances, within the circle of their power, and which require persisting (*nachhaltigen*) remedies. They have not been able to disavow (*erkennen*) that the prolongation of the development of military force on the Lower Danube is inconsistent (*unvereinbar*) with the most important neighbouring interests of Austria, and also with those of Germany. Not only will existing political State relations (*macht verhältnisse*) be menaced in a manner detrimental to Germany, but will most acutely prejudice the development of its material welfare (*materiellen Wohlfahrt in empfindlichster weise beeinträchtigt werden*).

Impressed with this conviction, the Courts of Austria and Prussia address themselves with confidence to their German allies.

They have already expressed to individual Governments their intimate conviction; and they hold it to be their duty so to do also within the circle of the Diet, that the interests for which they answer in the midst of pending complications are, according to their very essence (*wesen*), also the interests of entire Germany.

It seems to them to be a requirement (*Forderung*) of the political position of Germany—an element of her conservative (*erhaltenden*) policy—a condition of natural development for her national wealth—that in the countries of the Lower Danube there should exist a well-regulated (*geordnete*) state of affairs suitable to the interests of Middle Europe.

The industry and commerce of Germany open for themselves in the East a wider and more fruitful field for competition with other nations—a territory which must acquire greater importance for the estimation of German intelligence and manufacturing strength the more quickly articles of general cultivation and relations of traffic are extended. The material interests of Germany are susceptible of most powerful elevation through the great water channels to the East, and it is thence generally incumbent (*ein allgemeines Anliegen*) on Germany to secure, as much as possible, the freedom of Danubian commerce, and not to witness (*zusehen*) the material animation of water communications with the East repulsed by restrictions (*durch Beschränkungen zurückgedrängt*).

But the two Powers not only regard it to be the essential (*hohe*) general interest, but also the inviolable political duty of German Federal Governments to take care (*zuvorhaben*) that the pre-existing State relations of European great States shall not be altered to the prejudice of Germany by the present war. If the German Confederation was constituted in order that the national link of Germans should be maintained, and Germany exist in regard to external relations as a united global Power in a political point of view, then will the strength of the Confederation have principally to prove itself amply sufficient against all local dangers within its range, and to determine the rank which people (States?) are henceforth to take among themselves.

The closely allied Courts of Austria and Prussia, while they maintain, as European Powers, their point of view in its present position, think they have at the same time faithfully fulfilled their duties as members of the German Confederation. They therefore, may (*dürfen*) entertain firm confidence that their high federal allies will all (*insgesamt*) be ready to adhere to the position assumed in common by them. Their mission is still at this moment that of preparation (*Vorbereitung*) for all eventualities; and both august monarchs will certainly esteem themselves fortunate should coming events not entail the necessity of further intervention (*weiterer einschreiten*). Final decision still belongs to the future, and Austria and Prussia cannot intend to anticipate the judgment of their Allies, upon that which already, in the present state of affairs, calls for mature caution in favour of the general interests of Germany.

A double object, however, forms under all circumstances, the groundwork of their present communication. They entertain for themselves (*für sich selbst*) the liveliest wishes to obtain the tranquillising assurance that the attitude which they have observed during the constantly-increasing gravity or configuration of pending questions will meet with the approbation of their German allies. It has thus become a case of most urgent necessity that the decision of all members of the Confederation should be made known (*sich kund geben*) through the constitutional organ of its will and proceedings (*handeln*), and that they stand firm and true by each other under the probations which the approaching future may bring upon our common fatherland.

The more Germany shows itself in assured (*verbürgter*) unity and undivided strength, with so much greater emphasis will she maintain the honourable position appointed for her, and contribute effectually to the promotion of universal peace.

* The word *has*, strictly speaking, a more active sense.

The Sultan has presented Damascus swords, with richly-ornamented hilts and sheaths, to General Prim, Count de Reuss, Lieut.-Col. Carlos Detenre, and Major Pita del Corro, members of the Military Commission of the Queen of Spain.

THE GOVERNMENT, ADMINISTRATION, AND INTERNAL CONDITION OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

For the last forty years the Russian Empire has excited the alarm of many politicians and statesmen, and the curiosity of the people in all the civilised countries of the world. Much of the alarm has lately subsided, for the "big bully" has been proved by experience to be like other bullies, a coward and a false pretender; but the events of the last twelvemonth have tended to increase, rather than to allay, the curiosity that previously existed. Everybody wants to know something more of the man whose ambition has convulsed the world, and something more of the semi-barbarous State over which he rules. The press teems with books and pamphlets upon the subject, and it would seem as if all other literature were suspended, except that which relates to the Czar and his empire, his army, navy, and resources, and the character of himself and his people. The events of the war are as yet not sufficient of themselves to satisfy the public craving, and the broad-sheets of our daily and weekly contemporaries are expected to record not only the progress of our armies and the negotiations of our diplomatists, but to give their readers some insight into the internal condition of the State which it has become the duty of the Allies to humble and restrain. For this purpose we present our readers with a brief and succinct account of the powers and functions of the Czar, the state of his Army, Navy, Police, and Administration, and such details of the condition of the Nobility and People as we have been able to collect from the principal works that have lately been published upon the subject. The picture thus drawn of the Russian Empire is by no means a favourable one; but all travellers, whatever their country or their condition, are unanimous in their reports of the degraded condition of all classes of the Russians. There is little contradiction between German, French, and English writers. The system of Government is a brutalising despotism, and it has produced the only fruits that could have been expected of it; and, were the despotism not tempered by the fear of assassination, it is possible that it might have grown still more vicious and degrading than it is. Its natural consequence may be briefly stated as a discontented and plotting nobility, a dissolute and ignorant priesthood, and a people of slaves, ignorant, sensual, and stolid, looking upon the knout as the emblem and the arm of Government, and worshipping the Czar with as much servility as the native Africans exhibit towards their Fetiches. The Czar is, in fact, the Fetish of the Russians, and will be treated perhaps with as little ceremony, when his devotees discover how powerless is their idol to save them from the disasters which his evil passions have brought upon his country.

THE CZAR.

The Czar is the absolute lord and master of Russia and of the Russian people. His will is law. He is head of the State and the Church, and claims to be the viceroy of God on earth. A reverence for the Czar, amounting almost to idolatrous worship, is instilled into the Russians from their earliest childhood; they breathe it with the air; it is their chief mental food, and moulds their whole course of life. Next to the name of God, the name of the Czar always occurs in the religious vocabulary of the people, in whose eyes the two names have become the next thing to synonymous. "All comes from God and the Sovereign." "God is too high, the Czar is too far distant." "A man who is beaten by the Czar's orders is worth two who have not been." "What is mine is the Czar's." "Near the Czar near death;—fear not the judgment but the judge." Such are a few of the proverbs current among the Russian peasants and people, which show the dread estimation in which the Czar is held by them.

The following passages from the Russian Catechism, as taught to children in schools, show in a still more powerful manner the extent of his despotic authority and assumption of almost Divine power:—

- Question 1.—How is the authority of the Emperor to be considered in reference to the spirit of Christianity?
- Answer.—As proceeding immediately from God.
- Ques. 2.—How is this substantiated by the nature of things?
- Ans.—It is by the will of God that men live in society; hence the various relations which constitute society, which, for its more complete security, is divided into parts called nations, the Government of which is intrusted to a Prince, King, or Emperor; or, in other words, to a supreme ruler; we see, then, that, as man exists in conformity with the will of God, society emanates from the same Divine will, and more especially the supreme power and authority of our Lord and Master, the Czar.
- Ques. 3.—What duties does religion teach us, the humble subjects of his Majesty the Emperor of Russia, to practice towards him?
- Ans.—Worship, obedience, fidelity, the payment of taxes, service, love, and prayer; the whole being comprised in the words worship and fidelity.
- Ques. 4.—Wherein does this worship consist, and how should it be manifested?
- Ans.—By the most unqualified reverence in words, gestures, demeanour, thoughts, and actions.
- Ques. 5.—What kind of obedience do we owe him?
- Ans.—An entire, passive, and unbounded obedience in every point of view.
- Ques. 6.—In what consists the fidelity we owe to the Emperor?
- Ans.—In executing his commands most rigorously, without examination—in performing the duties he requires from us—and in doing everything willingly, without murmuring.
- Ques. 7.—Is it obligatory on us to pay taxes to our gracious Sovereign the Emperor?
- Ans.—It is incumbent on us to pay every tax in compliance with his supreme commands, both as to the amount, and when due.
- Ques. 8.—Is the service of his Majesty the Emperor obligatory on us?
- Ans.—Absolutely so; we should, if required, sacrifice ourselves in compliance with his will, both in a civil and military capacity, and in whatever manner he deems expedient.
- Ques. 9.—What benevolent sentiments and love are due to the Emperor?
- Ans.—We should manifest our good-will and affection, according to our station, in endeavouring to promote the prosperity of our native land, as well as that of the Emperor, our father, and of his august family.
- Ques. 10.—Is it incumbent on us to pray for the Emperor, and for Russia, our country?
- Ans.—Both publicly and privately, beseeching the Almighty to grant the Emperor health and integrity, happiness and security. The same is applicable to the country, which constitutes an indivisible part of the Emperor.
- Ques. 11.—What principles are in opposition to these duties?
- Ans.—Irreverence, disobedience, infidelity, malevolence, treason, mutiny, and revolt.
- Ques. 12.—How are irreverence and infidelity to the Emperor to be considered in reference to God?
- Ans.—As the most heinous sin—the most frightful calamity.
- Ques. 13.—Does religion, then, forbid us to rebel and overthrow the Government of the Emperor?
- Ans.—We are interdicted from so doing, at all times, and under all circumstances.
- Ques. 14.—Independently of the worship we owe the Emperor, are we called upon to respect the public authorities emanating from him?
- Ans.—Yes; because they emanate from him, represent him, and act as his substitutes; so that the Emperor is everywhere.
- Ques. 15.—What motives have we to fulfil the duties above enumerated?
- Ans.—The motives are twofold—some natural, others revealed.
- Ques. 16.—What are the natural motives?
- Ans.—Besides the motives adduced, there are the following:—The Emperor being the head of the nation, the father of all his subjects (who constitute one and the same country), Russia is thereby alone worthy of reverence, gratitude, and obedience; for both public welfare and individual security depend on submissiveness to his commands.
- Ques. 17.—What are the supernatural revealed motives for his worship?
- Ans.—The supernatural revealed motives are, that the Emperor is the Viceroy and Minister of God to execute the Divine commands; and, consequently, disobedience to the Emperor is identified with disobedience to God himself; that God will reward us in the world to come for the worship and obedience we render the Emperor, and punish us severely to all eternity should we disobey and neglect to worship him. Moreover, God commands us to love and obey from the inmost recesses of the heart every authority, and particularly the Emperor—not from worldly consideration, but from apprehension of the final judgment.
- Ques. 18.—What books prescribe these duties?
- Ans.—The New and Old Testaments, and particularly the Psalms, Gospels, and Apostolic Epistles.
- Ques. 19.—What examples confirm this doctrine?
- Ans.—The example of Jesus Christ himself, who lived and died in allegiance to the Emperor of Rome, and respectfully submitted to the judgment which condemned him to death. We have, moreover, the ex-

ample of the Apostles, who both loved and respected him; they suffered meekly in dungeons, conformably to the will of the Emperors, and did not revolt like malefactors and traitors. We must, therefore, in imitation of these examples, suffer and be silent.

Ques. 20.—At what period did the custom originate of praying to the Almighty for the prosperity of the Sovereign?

Ans.—The custom of publicly praying for the Emperor is coeval with the introduction of Christianity; which custom is to us the most valuable legacy and splendid gift we have received from past ages.

Such is the code of religion in Russia, and such the means by which the Czars have contrived to sow the seeds of despotism throughout the land. So long as the Russian people retain this blasphemous catechism, so long will Russia continue to have need of a dictator.

THE ADMINISTRATION—THE FUNCTIONARIES OF THE GOVERNMENT.

Although the Czar is the sole and irresponsible head of the Administration, it suits his convenience to have a deliberative body or Parliament to assist him. The Administration consists of three principal Councils—the Council of the Empire, the Holy Synod, and the Directing Senate. The Council of the Empire, established in 1810 by the Emperor Alexander, is composed of forty members, chosen from among the Princes of the Royal blood, statesmen, generals, and admirals, and has five departments. The first relates to the laws; the second, to the army and navy; the third, to civil affairs; the fourth, to public economy and commerce; and the fifth, to the affairs of Poland. When the Council of the Empire meet collectively, the Czar is the speaker; but when a particular department meets, a President is elected. The Holy Synod is entrusted with the direction of ecclesiastical affairs, and is composed of a Metropolitan, three Archbishops, a Bishop, the Father-confessor to the Czar, an Arohimandrite, an Almoner-General to the Army and Navy, and a Protosope or first High Priest. This Synod holds its sittings chiefly at Moscow, but on particular occasions at St. Petersburg, and is presided over by an Attorney, who is the Czar's representative. The Directing Senate, founded in 1711, by Peter the Great, and consisting of about 100 members, elected by the Czar, is the chief tribunal of the Empire. It has eleven departments, six of which meet at St. Petersburg, three at Moscow, and two at Warsaw. In a general meeting of the Senate, affairs are decided by majority; but in the departments the votes must be unanimous. Besides these, there are eleven Ministries created by the Emperor Alexander, 1st, the Ministry of the Imperial Household; 2nd, that of Internal Affairs; 3rd, Foreign Affairs; 4th, War; 5th, the Navy; 6th, Education; 7th, Finance; 8th, Justice; 9th, Imperial Post; 10th, Highways; 11th, Board of Control of the Empire, auditing all accounts of the Empire. The Ministry for Foreign Affairs provides the Ambassadors, which are three in number, and sent respectively to the Courts of London, Paris, and Vienna; and the seventeen Ministers Plenipotentiary which are sent to the other principal capitals of the world. Every chief town of a province has a Chamber of Regency, composed of four Councillors, and presided over by a Civil Governor; and every town has a municipality, or *domna*, elected annually, and composed of two Burgomasters and four Councillors, whose principal duties relate to the disputes of citizens. There is likewise a Common Council, called the Council of Six, whose members are chosen every three years. In every province there is a Chamber of Finance, consisting of a President and a given number of Councillors, and having four State institutions, viz., the Commission for Liquidating the National Debt, and three banks.

THE LAW AND THE MAGISTRACY.

The state of the Law in Russia is at the present day precisely what it was in the time of Peter the Great. Nominally the laws have been altered and modified by the Czar Nicholas and his predecessor Alexander, but they have been merely re-arranged and modernised in expression. The Ukases issued by the Czar, on his sole authority, and which form the laws, are stated by a recent traveller to amount to upwards of 40,000, arranged under 2000 different heads, and interspersed with postscripts and *nota bene*—the whole filling forty-five thick quarto volumes. These Ukases are often directly at variance with each other, and are many of them ridiculously puerile. Some of them interdict the use of English hats and French waistcoats, and forbid smoking in public places.

Russian law is described by all writers as a greedy, rapacious bully—an ogre fattening upon the estates of the rich and the bones of the poor. Money will buy anything in Russia. The Judge sells his judgment to the highest bidder; so that justice is to be purchased like any more tangible commodity. Barristers are not only the most corrupt of the corrupt, but they are illiterate and ill-informed persons. Special pleaders arrange beforehand how the case shall be settled, and share the spoils amicably between them, in order that they may subsist during the trial. A law case often lasts from twenty to thirty years, and is seldom known to be decided in less than ten. As there is no justice to be found in Russia, so there is no word to express the idea of it in the Russian dictionary.

THE POLICE.

The Police are the most rapacious class of men in the whole Empire. They live chiefly on plunder and on bribes, to obtain which they resort to all manner of intrigues and dishonest actions. This state of things is, to a certain extent, brought on by the insufficient wages allowed to them by the Government; the *Nadsirdatells*, or Commissioners of Police, receiving no more than from twenty to twenty-four pounds a year, and the subordinate officers scarcely sufficient to provide them with the commonest necessities of life. Nothing can be done in Russia without the supervision of the police. A person can scarcely even stir abroad without being followed by one or other of this execrable sort of valets. If a man fall down in a fit in the streets, the police must pick him up; and, if no policeman be at hand, the man must lie there till one arrives, it being against the law for any non-official person to offer him the least assistance. No measures are taken for the relief of a person suffering from an accident until after a regular statement has been drawn up as to the colour of the individual's hair and eyes, his form, his features, his clothes, &c. Cases are related, in recent as well as in ancient books of travel, of persons drowning before the eyes of hundreds of their fellow-men, and of murders committed in the public thoroughfares; of which the passers-by have remained mere spectators, from fear of incurring the odium of the police by interfering. These disgraceful regulations are said to have been framed originally with a view to prevent robbery; for the Government authorities, being themselves dishonest, suspect every one else; and look upon a person that takes hold of a drowning man's coat to save him, as being in the act of purloining that article.

If a person be unfortunate enough to lose any article of dress, or to be robbed of the same, he suddenly finds himself entangled in the meshes of those human spiders, who, pouncing upon him unawares, solemnly charge him with having lost his watch or mantle, as the case may be, and peremptorily demand a fee for the trouble they have been put to on his account. This done, the police note down particulars as to the amount and quality of the lost goods, and leaving their victim to reflect at his ease on the roubles of which he has been fleeced, return after a short time for another fee. Woe to the man who is audacious enough to refuse the demands of these guardians of the public property! From that moment he becomes the *protégé* of the police, who will not fail to make him aware of the fatherly interest they take in his lost property, and in all his doings, even to the smallest and most trivial action.

The police are expressly forbidden to interfere with persons found

drunk in the streets. The reason for this is that the Government has a monopoly in the manufacture and trade of spirituous liquors. When it is added that large revenues amounting to 50,000,000 roubles, or £8,000,000 sterling, are annually drawn from this source, it will easily be conceived why the Government should encourage drunkenness. But, by a strange anomaly, the police are directed to take into custody every person found smoking in the public thoroughfares. Government is not in a position to draw large revenues from tobacco, and consequently looks upon smoking in the light of a public nuisance, and punishes it accordingly.

The posting system of Russia is a department of the police, in which the system of bribery is carried to a great extent. The post-masters must be bribed before they will confess to having a horse in their stables; and when once the honest truth is purchased, another fee must be paid to make it worth the station-master's while to harness or saddle the animals required. The departure of passenger-boats depends entirely on the good pleasure of the police. The registered day of sailing is not regarded. No circumstances, however urgent, will induce them to let the boat start, unless they receive a gratuity. They take a sort of instinctive pleasure in delaying things as much as possible, and chuckle over the rueful faces of their victims, knowing that sooner or later the growing impatience of the traveller will produce them roubles. It is a matter of no small difficulty to travel from one Russian town to another. Instances are on record of travellers having had to spend several days in obtaining permission to leave a particular place. The passport must be taken to the police-office to be examined and re-examined, and, after being handed about from one official to another, be finally allowed to rest for days among a heap of other documents of a similar description. In the meanwhile, no notice whatever is taken of the traveller, unless, indeed, he be so far initiated into the mysteries of Russian society as to give the functionary a bribe.

No position whatever can be maintained in Russia without bribery. Even the Governors of provinces must bribe the officials in their service if they have any desire to become popular rulers; and the neglecting to do so is often followed by loss of position and degradation for life. A circumstance is related by Mr. Oliphant, which gives strong proof of the instinctive dishonesty of the Russian people. He describes the case of a steam-boat company on the Volga, which, although their boats were in great demand, and well freighted with passengers and goods, not only realised no gains, but actually sustained a heavy annual loss. The directors, instead of calling the officials to account—for that were useless, thieving being practically no crime in this portion of the world—at once transferred the management of their affairs to a few Englishmen resident in Russia. A complete change in the prospects of the company was the consequence of this change of hands, and, instead of loss, an influx of unlooked-for profits was the result.

An interesting anecdote is related by M. de Lagny, which further illustrates the question of bribery and official robbery in Russia. The Czar, it seems, having been made aware of the innate rottenness of his empire, by the investigations of some German gentlemen whom he had deputed to inquire into the subject, related to Count Orloff all he had learned on the subject, and exclaimed with concentrated indignation:—"Every one robs me throughout the empire; every one around robs me! In whatever direction I choose to glance I behold only pilferers and robbers. There is only one person, one single person, who can walk proudly with head erect. Of this person at least I am sure!" As he said these last words, he looked at his favourite very fixedly and very strangely; and the Count, imagining that the Emperor was alluding to him, bowed to the ground, to thank his august master for having had the goodness to think him an honest servant. But the Czar, striking himself on the breast, added:—"And that person who does not rob is myself! I am the only person throughout the empire who does not steal!"

It has been stated by several writers that the Czar has done his best to put a stop to the corrupt practices of the police. This, Galovin denies, and gives an unpublished anecdote as a proof of the error of such statements:—

The Emperor (observes that writer) asked General Martinoff, one day, how it happened that the Commissioners of Police had such fine horses, and such handsome furs—whether they bought them with their pay? "They have eleven to twelve hundred roubles a year," replied the General. "And how much do they spend?" "From ten to twelve thousand," was the reply. "How, then, do they manage?" "I must leave your Majesty to guess." "That is a point upon which I never thought before," replied the Czar.

The Russian historian assures his readers that the Czar has since done nothing whatever to amend this state of things.

THE NOBILITY.

The nobility are divided into two classes, the Boyards and the Tchinns. The BOYARDS, or feudal nobility, amounting to about 225,000, are the owners of the soil and of the peasantry that live thereon. The most wealthy of these self-proprietors are Count Cheremetieff and Count Stoganoff, the former of whom is said to possess as many as 100,000. The Boyards occupy a position somewhat similar to that of the ancient chieftains under the feudal system of England, Scotland, France, and Germany. But, although their power as a great political body has long been on the wane, yet it is evident that they must exercise a very great influence both on the Government and internal condition of the empire, so long as they own so large a portion of the land and of the population, whom—like kings and despots—they can scourge, imprison, or execute, at pleasure.

The principal noble families of Russia are, or pretend to be, of foreign extraction—the more illustrious claiming their descent from Italian, Tartar, and Georgian ancestors. It is the peculiar pride of each noble to be able to prove that he is not a Russian in blood; and the length to which the Boyards carried their boasts of precedence one over the other, is said to have irritated one of the early Czars to such a pitch that he one day ordered all their genealogical tables to be publicly burnt.

The Boyards are described by all travellers in Russia as being a degraded and licentious class. There are, no doubt, a few honourable exceptions; but that the bulk of the aristocracy are ignorant and brutal appears to be an incontestable fact.

There are three universities in Russia—viz., those of Moscow, Kharkoff, and Kief, intended for the instruction of the nobility, and to which the Czar is anxious to restrict them; and it was to effect this purpose that he instituted a tax on all noblemen going abroad. The character of the information and intellectual training provided by these establishments is described by those who have inquired into the subject to be of the narrowest and most superficial description; all liberal views being carefully excluded, and history—which is the principal study of Russian students—so obscured and perverted as to render the instruction so obtained even worse than none at all. By far the most enlightened of the aristocracy are such as have been brought up in foreign schools. But it must not be imagined that every nobleman finds it expedient to provide all his children with the benefits of education. This is far from being the case, even on the testimony of Krusenstern, in his "Progress of Public Instruction in Russia," who, although notoriously partial to the cause of Russia, states that the average number of noble children receiving instruction of any kind is no more than one in five.

The tax levied upon the nobility for the privilege of travelling abroad amounts to as much as £80 a head. But all the money in the world will not induce the Czar to grant his permit if he suspect the party of having political reasons for leaving the country; and a full and accurate

(Continued on page 522.)



CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF THE SAVIOUR, AND THE OBSERVATORY, AT CRONSTADT.

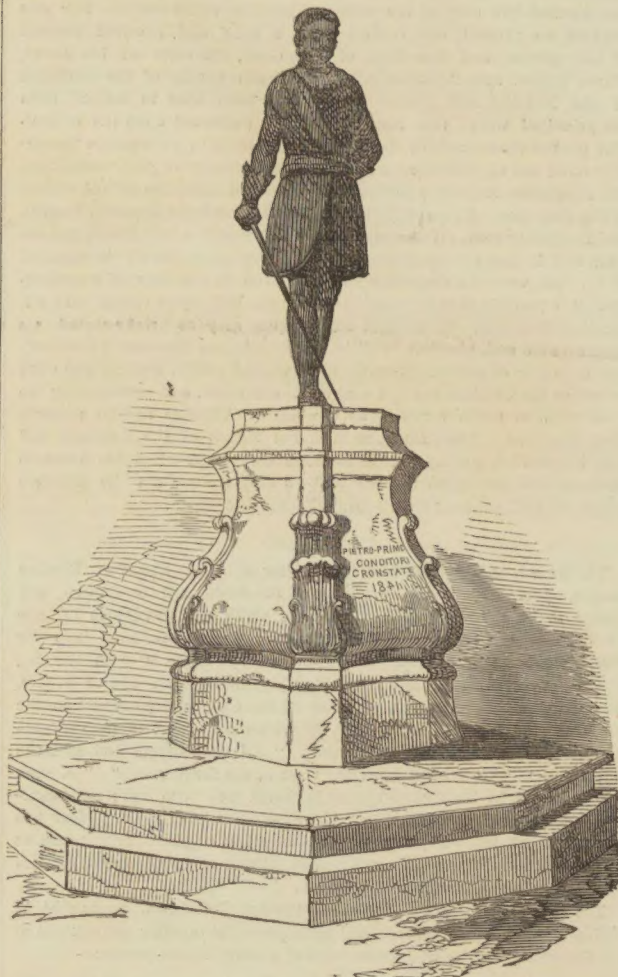
CRONSTADT.

In the ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS for April 8th, we Engraved, from a series of original sketches, the principal fortifications of this reputedly impregnable port. We now Engrave two Views of the public buildings, &c., of the town, also from sketches by a Correspondent.

Cronstadt may be considered at once the outwork, the arsenal, and the commercial entrepôt of St. Petersburg. Eight leagues of water separate the two localities; but that water is seldom more than eight feet deep, so that all large vessels, and even the packet-steamers, are obliged to stop and unload at Cronstadt. Ships of war are, indeed, built at St. Petersburg, where there are excellent building and graving docks, but they are always sent to Cronstadt

to be rigged and armed. Cronstadt itself contains three ports—one used for commercial purposes, another for the repair and outfit of ships of war, the third as a station for the Russian Navy. Cronstadt lies upon the island of Kottline, three leagues in length by half a league in breadth. Its western point, is however, much narrower. Sand-banks surround it on every side, except at the south-east extremity, where the town and harbour are situated. Along the opposite coast of Ingria, another sand-bank stretches, and extends so far into the sea as to leave but a narrow and winding channel by way of entrance to Cronstadt Harbour. Within the port, moreover, the water is from six to seven fathoms deep, but the channel in places is barely four—a depth by no means sufficient for huge 131-gun ships like the *Duke of Wellington*, for whose passage even the Sound was not considered safe.

The town of Cronstadt is described by Mr. Lang, as very regularly built, and containing many fine, straight, and well-paved streets, and several public squares. The houses, however, with the exception of those belonging to the Government, are chiefly of one story, and built of wood. The city has three gates; and is divided into two parts, the Commandant and Admiralty quarters, which are subdivided into four districts. Between the Peter's and Catherine canals is the old Italian palace, built by Prince Menschikoff, who took this island from the Swedes in 1703. It is at present occupied by the School for Pilots, a large establishment, where 300 pupils are educated for the naval service, and twenty for the merchant service. The Naval Hospital is a large and well-regulated institution, with accommodation for 2500 patients, and a separate building for officers of the navy. Among the buildings are the Admiralty, Exchange, Custom-house, barracks, a Protestant gymnasium, various schools, an invalid asylum for sixty females, the nobility's club, and the house of Peter the Great, where he resided for some time; but, with the exception of a few old oaks, which he is said to have planted with his own hand, there are no remains of the former garden.



STATUE OF PETER THE GREAT, AT CRONSTADT.

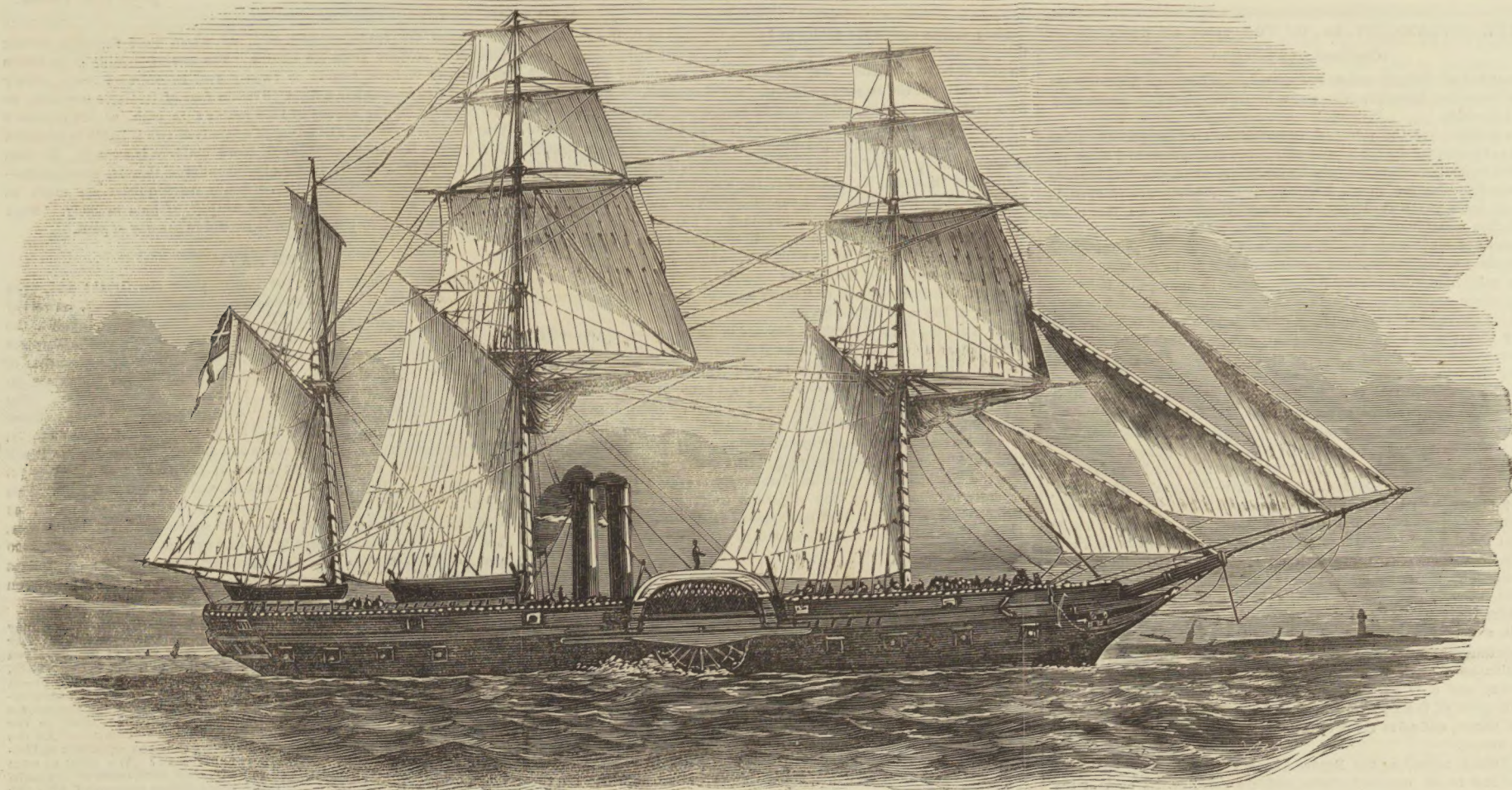
Of the churches we have engraved the Cathedral Sábör (Saviour), erected in the St. Andrew's quarter. Its spire and dome are covered with brass plates. The building, with tower and staff, in the centre of the accompanying View, and nearer the spectator, is a sort of time-telegraph; reminding one of a similar building, answering a similar purpose, in Portsmouth Dockyard. The railing in the foreground is that of the balcony of the British Consul's residence, from which the Sketch was taken. There are also in Cronstadt other churches, a club for the nobility, a bazaar, barracks, schools, and other public buildings. The Hospital for the Military is capable of containing 2000 sick.

The Statue of Peter the Great, is in the Square of Cronstadt. The figure looks towards (his) the fleet. On the granite pedestal is the inscription, in Latin:—

Petro primo conditori Cronstate, 1841.



CRONSTADT.—THE HARBOUR.



H.M. STEAM-SHIP "TIGER."

LOSS OF H.M.S. "TIGER."

The *Russian Invalid* gives the following report from General Osten-Sacken, relative to this catastrophe, in a Supplement of the 19th ult.; but, of course, great allowance must be made for exaggeration, so far as details are concerned:—

I hasten to lay before your Highness [Prince Paskiewitch] the flag and jack of the British steam-frigate *Tiger*, of 400-horse power. It ran aground, was set on fire, and blown up, as it was impossible to get it afloat and bring it into harbour, because two other steamers prevented the attempt. The following are the details:—This morning, May 12, the frigate, which came in the direction from St. Sebastopol, got ashore near Kartazzi, about six versts (four miles and a quarter) from Odessa. The position field pieces (18 or 12 pounders) of No. 2 Battery, 16th brigade, under Lieutenant Abakoumoff, arrived from the Lustdoricolony before the other two steamers could assist the *Tiger*; and, supported by two companies of the Dnieper reserve infantry regiment, and a platoon of Lancers of Count Neketine's regiment, opened their fire with such precision that, after the vessel had received several shots, and its captain had lost his foot, she was forced to surrender. The enemy's shot flew harmlessly over the battery (evidently from the vessel lying on her beam), the colours were hauled down, and the lieutenant, who had taken the command, presented himself before me, and declared his crew prisoners of war. By my orders he sent his boats and crew ashore, and laid down his and their arms. They and their wounded, five in number, were sent to the quarantine. Meanwhile eight pieces of the light position battery No. 2 (twelve-pounders), and the horse battery No. 11, arrived from Odessa, with a battalion of the Sonzdal reserve regiment, and the reserve battalion of the Ukraine light infantry, with two squadrons of Archduke Ferdinand's Lancers, reached the shore. The enemy's wounded were not yet removed before two of the enemy's steamers were observed through the fog. As no means were at hand to float the surrendered vessel and get her into port, and as more enemy's vessels might also arrive at any moment, I ordered the stranded ship to be set on fire with shot. The two steamers of the enemy came within gun range, and opened their fire upon our batteries. Colonel Granowitch maintained such a well directed fire during two hours, with twelve pieces, that the enemy's ships were compelled to retire out of range much damaged. Two men and three horses of the reserve battery were killed. Colonel Flensky and Lieutenant Smirnof, of the 2nd Light Infantry and 10th Brigade, received con-

sions. We have made prisoners Captain Giffard, 24 officers (and warrant officers), with 201 seamen and marines. The *Tiger* was armed with sixteen Paixhans. At half-past seven p.m. she was completely burned.

With regard to the loss of the *Tiger*, at Odessa, and the capture of the crew, the following communication has been received by a Greek house in London. The paragraphs are translated from the original letter, and, either from caution or inclination on the part of the writers, are perfectly Russian in tone:—

The two steamers which appeared in our harbour the day before yesterday came to inquire for the commander of the *Tiger*.

They came with all the civility due, and as soon as they cast anchor hoisted the Imperial Russian flag. In the same spirit they fired muskets instead of guns, so as not to frighten the town.

They have asked to see the captain, but that is not allowed, as he and the others are in quarantine.

They have offered to give money and cigars to the prisoners, which has been allowed. They brought letters to them, and took letters from them, and they have given instructions to the Austrian Consul to hand them money when required.

Our Government treats them very kindly, and the prisoners wrote a letter to thank the Commander-in-Chief.

At the Conversazione of the Institution of Civil Engineers, on Tuesday last, was exhibited a fine model of the *Tiger*, which excited considerable interest throughout the evening.

THE BALTIC FLEET IN ELGSNABEN BAY.

EVERY graphic record of our noble fleet in the Baltic will, doubtless, be welcomed as an interesting contribution towards what may be hereafter termed an illustrated history of the war. We have been favoured with the accompanying instance by Lieut. East, of H.M.S. *Hogue*, who sketched the scene from the highest point of Elgsnabben Island, in the Bay (on the coast of Sweden, about sixty miles from Stockholm).

The main portion of the fleet under the orders of Sir. C. Napier, Commander-in-Chief, and comprising sixteen sail of the line (inclusive of the French screw steam-ship *Austerlitz*), together with five steamers, were detained until the afternoon of the 5th ult., owing to the boisterous

weather which had prevailed for the previous fortnight. On the evening of the 3rd the signal, "Prepare to sail to-morrow at daybreak," was made; but so dense a fog came on as to render objects invisible at a distance of 300 yards, and this continued during the 4th, and up to the forenoon of the 5th, when it dispersed, and the fleet weighed under steam alone—the *Neptune*, *Monarch*, *Boscawen*, and *Cumberland* being in tow of the smaller steam-vessels, the *Prince Regent* and a small steamer remaining at anchor in Elgsnabben Bay. As the fleet was about to proceed to sea, the *Leopard*, 16, Captain Giffard, despatched on the 24th ult. on particular service, came into Elgsnabben Harbour, bearing intelligence of great importance.

A letter in the *Daily News*, dated Stockholm, May 10, states the general belief in that capital to be that the sudden departure of Sir Charles Napier was caused by the intelligence that that portion of the Russian fleet which during the winter had remained at Sveaborg, was endeavouring to get away to Cronstadt. Some persons asserted that twenty Russian vessels had already succeeded in escaping from Sveaborg, and that in all probability, they would be able to reach Cronstadt. The fact of the British squadron having first proceeded towards San Island (Sandö), not far from the northern extremity of the island of Gothland, instead of sailing direct from Elgsnabben to the Gulf of Finland, excited much speculation.

During the fortnight the British squadron lay at Elgsnabben Bay, it was visited not only by the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands, Utö, Ornö, and Dalarö, but also of the somewhat distant coasts of Osterhaninge, Westerhaninge, and Osmo.

The two vessels that remained in Elgsnabben, after the departure of Sir Charles Napier, were the *Prince Regent* and the *Monarch*, which, to the very last, were visited by numbers of persons. The latter left the bay on the afternoon of the 7th, and the former on the next morning; numerous spectators in small boats, and on the neighbouring islands, giving the *Prince Regent* a friendly farewell. The noble bay in which in former times the rival fleets of the Scandinavian States and of Lubeck more than once assembled, is now deserted; and the only vestige—so to write—of the British fleet is young Freeland's grave in the fir-decked churchyard of Musko. (The funeral was engraved in the ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS of last Saturday.)



THE BALTIC FLEET AT ANCHOR, IN ELGSNABEN BAY.

THE GOVERNMENT, &c., OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

(Continued from page 519.)

statement of all their intentions is required, together with a description of the route they intend to take, and a list of the places in which they intend to reside.

The nobility are the principal manufacturers of Russia, or rather owners of factories; for the whole control and management of them are confided to foreigners—principally Englishmen. The principal produce of these factories are hemp, flax, and tallow, which are shipped to different parts of the Continent, and to England. It is a matter for speculation whether the present war, cutting off, as it necessarily does, this source of profit from the Boyards, will not become so unpopular among them as to be a source of personal danger to the Czar.

The political decline of the Boyards began in the time of Peter the Great, whose national reforms they thwarted by every means in their power. Perceiving that he could not curb this headstrong nobility, and finding that the axe and the sabre only tended to make things worse, the Czar determined to form a new order of nobility from among the mass of the people. For this purpose he issued a Ukase, declaring that civil and military officials should thenceforth be placed on the same footing with respect to rank as the ancient lords of the Empire. To this new aristocracy he gave the name of the *Tchinn*, or "Betitled," by which denomination they have ever since been distinguished.

THE *TCHINN* are estimated at 750,000, and are divided into fourteen classes. The first class is represented by one man—Marshal Paskiewitch, Viceroy of Warsaw; the second is composed of all admirals, generals, governors of provinces, marshals of the court, and councillors of the Senate; the third class, of the vice-admirals, grand equerries, and procurers of the Senate; the fourth class, of the chamberlains, rear-admirals, and major-generals; the fifth class comprises the post-captains, officers, clerks, and officials of the Imperial stable. The remainder are composed of the Czar's valets, servants, and the minor officials and supernumeraries of the public offices. This aristocracy, after continued broils with the feudal lords, who at first considered their institution as a mere whim of the Czar, have at length gained the supremacy, and only wait a favourable opportunity—according to the accounts given of them by De Lagny and others—to upset the existing state of things, and seize the property of the Boyards, which they have long coveted.

The *Tchinn*, as well as the Boyards, have the privilege of trial in a court of law in all cases of offence, and are not, like the bulk of the people, under the immediate orders of the police. To prevent mistake, every member of the nobility is compelled to inscribe the number of his class upon his front door; and any civil functionary found molesting the inhabitants of any house so distinguished are liable to punishment. The inadvertence of the Czar Peter in so lavishly scattering the badges of nobility among the people, and the too great eagerness with which his successors have followed his example, are every day becoming more apparent. An influential body of needy *employés* has been puffed up into arrogance which, it is to be expected, will one day explode in revolution. The *Tchinn* hold in their hands the keys of life and death; before their secret tribunals the fate of the Czars has been more than once decided, the length of their lives prescribed, and the day of their death fixed. For nine entire years—from 1839 to 1847—did these secret societies meet to pronounce the doom of the Emperor Nicholas, and that, too, when his death was not urgent; and now, when he stands not only in the way of their ambition, but between them and their very bread, it is not likely that the *Tchinn* have forgotten their old tribunals.

THE SERFS.

The words *slave* and *negro* have been so often coupled together that they have almost become synonymous; and when the great question of slavery is mooted, the mind instinctively turns to the United States of America. But we need not go so far; for in the north of the most civilised portion of the old world is a whole nation of slaves. The soil, together with the human beings that live thereon, is split up into hereditary estates, divided among some fifty or sixty thousand noble families. The Russian peasant has no property of his own: his wife, children, his furniture, his implements of husbandry, are his master's. Even his limbs are not his own, for all that he has belongs as much to his proprietor as the wool, offspring, and flesh of a sheep in England belongs to the farmer or the butcher. He is looked upon in all respects as a "chattel." His master may ill-use him as much as he pleases. There is a particular ukase which expressly forbids the serf from bringing up complaints before a court of law against his owner, such offence being punishable with the utmost severity. The average value of a serf is 100 roubles. The slaves of Russia are bought and sold by private contract, and families can be disposed of in separate instalments, if need be. Serfs are often given as birthday presents, and cases have been known in which they have been put up as stakes at gambling tables.

Hundreds of serfs (says Captain Jesse) are taken from the east and central parts of Russia and sent to the Crimea, and there let out on hire for the benefit of their proprietors, as they have been to the contractors of the railways made in Russia, who agreed to pay, independently of the monthly stipend, seven hundred roubles a head for those who died—about the value of a horse. Though in an indirect manner, I have known them sold in the streets and market-place of Kiev. The men only are reckoned as souls—if young and healthy, they usually sell for a thousand roubles a head; a woman, that is *no soul*, fetches only five hundred.

A serf may receive his liberty by rendering peculiar service to the State—such as denouncing conspirators or persons attempting the life of the Czar, and, once having received his freedom, he is nominally free for life. Nevertheless he can, at a moment's notice, be forced to enlist as a common soldier, and thereby enter another state of thralldom even worse than that from which he is emancipated. If a Boyard be unable to pay his debts, his peasants are compelled to do so to the last farthing of their means; and if a slave be killed by one of his fellows, the owner of the murdered man receives compensation in money from the owner of the murderer—which money is generally raised from among those that witnessed the quarrel.

The peasant has no private interest in the cultivation of the soil. The opinion generally expressed that the indolence and ignorance of the peasantry are solely attributable to their state of serfdom, is supported by the fact that in Orenburg, where there are great numbers of emancipated slaves, not only agricultural, but every other industrial department of the public service, flourishes to an extent hitherto unprecedented in the annals of the country. M. Togoborski, in his "Études sur les forces productives de la Russie," rejects the idea that slavery is the cause of the bad state of Russian agriculture, and observes that the emancipated serfs of the Czar, amounting to more than half the entire serf population, do not work a bit better than the rest. But Golovin at once defeats this argument by proving that the serfs of the Czar are not free, unless it be a proof of freedom to be compelled to pay 600 roubles for the bare privilege of becoming a citizen, a tax which will probably swallow up all their gains. "Properly speaking," observes Golovin, "there are only 72,000 free peasants in Russia."

The serfs have the privilege of working three days of the week on their own account on the payment of a certain tax. This tax is called "abrock" (sometimes spelt *obrok*), and is enforced by greedy agents, who have been known to squeeze the last copek from their tenants, in order that some spoil may remain in their own hands. Nor do the extortions of the serf-owners end here. The serf cannot even marry without being subject to a heavy tax. He is, however, if too poor to pay prompt cash, allowed the privilege of taking a wife for a lease of five years at fifty roubles a year, as one rents a house.

Some writers couple the nobles and serfs together in their accounts of the population, disregarding for the time the small intermediate commercial or middle classes. But the nobles and serfs—the highest and lowest classes in the empire, and, as one would suppose, the most distant from each other—are in reality in close approximation; and the case of a noble being summarily degraded to the rank of a serf, and of a peasant being raised to the rank of the *Tchinn*, is of so frequent an occurrence as to place many families of the *Tchinn* in near relationship to the most despised of the serfs. It is related of the Empress Catherine II. that in a sudden fit of enthusiasm, or, as her friends say, of condolence with the miseries of the serfs, she, with one dash of her pen erased the word "serf" from the Russian dictionary. It was, however, only the word which displeased her, for, as we read in the annals of her reign, not only did the serfs suffer more during her administration than in any other time, but the free peasants of "Little Russia" were by her command reduced to the most abject slavery.

The Russian serf, both in the towns and in the provinces, is a wretched and degraded being. Not only is no attention paid to his intellectual and moral culture, but education is prohibited him by the law. His frightful depravity is a cause of anxiety to no one, and his non-observance of the decencies of life is looked upon, not as a reason for furnishing him with instruction, but as a manifestation of the natural state of his mind, to attempt to purify which would be as ridiculous as to attempt to "wash a blackamoor white." The serf is rendered indolent by ill usage. All the good qualities that may have been inherent in his race have been blunted by long subjection to tyranny. His principal characteristic is apathy. He has no strong desire for anything, not even for liberty, which one would imagine to be the summit of a slave's ambition.

The number of serfs in Russia is estimated by Ivan Golovin at 24,000,000; but Krusenstern, who, from his well-known partiality to Russia, is not likely to exaggerate, gives that number to the Czar alone, and estimates the total serf-population at not less than 42,000,000. Some of these, and particularly those belonging to the Czar, are better treated than the rest, and enjoy certain privileges which render them, if not actually free, at least sufficiently so to enable them to provide a comfortable subsistence for themselves and families, and in some few instances to amass wealth. Next to the Czar, the principal serf proprietor is Count Cheremetieff, whom we have already mentioned as possessing 100,000. Many of these live in the towns, driving about in their carriages, and giving splendid banquets. But the knowledge that they are, after all, only slaves, is like "a worm in the bud" of their prosperity; and cases are known of many wealthy serfs who would sacrifice half their fortune to purchase the name of "free man." Count Cheremetieff, however, turns a deaf ear to such entreaties; and the richer the serf, the greater the desire of the boyard to retain him; for there is nothing which is so flattering to the pride of a great noble as the consciousness that these rich tradesmen hold their vaunted position only by his suffrage.

When Count Kharkoff (says Captain Jesse) gives large parties, he takes pleasure in making the wealthiest of his serfs put on his livery and wait at table. One of them, a clever watchmaker, offered him a large sum for his emancipation, but his request was refused, and the Count's answer was, "No; pay me five hundred roubles a year, and I will not exercise my power, but I will never part with it."

THE ARMY.

The Russian Army is composed of four principal divisions—the Imperial Guard, the Army in Active Service, the Military Colonies, and the Cossacks. The Imperial Guard, as we learn from the "Almanach de Gotha," consists of 486,000 men, with 996 pieces of cannon; the Army in Active Service, 288,000; the Military Colonies, or regular troops stationed at the Caucasus, Finland, Orenburg, and Siberia, together with the battalions of the Line and the Guards of the Interior, about 198,000; and the Cossacks, viz., the Cossacks of the Don, of Azof, of the Danube, of the Black Sea, of the Caucasus, of the Oural, of Orenburg, of Siberia, of the frontiers of China, and of Astrakan, about 136,000, with 224 pieces of artillery. There are, besides these, the Reserves, divided into two regiments, and consisting of upwards of 200,000 men, and the Reserve Veterans and Invalids, amounting to upwards of 100,000.

These statistical estimates with respect to the Russian army are the very lowest that have been formed, and a yield total of upwards of a million of soldiers. Counting all the recent levies made by the Czar, the Russian soldiery must greatly exceed that number. The threat of the Emperor Nicholas, that if, in his war with Europe, one million of soldiers were not sufficient, he could raise two, or three, or even four millions, was an empty boast; for it is well known that he cannot even provide his regular troops with the common necessities and decencies of life. Russian military statistics are of little value. On paper they have an imposing appearance; for there each cipher stands for a soldier; but, on the field, a person accustomed to the sight of English and French troops will behold, not soldiers, but motley mobs, half naked and half starved. The miserable condition of the Russian army is attributable to several causes, and, among others, to the universal system of corruption which pervades every part of the public service. The different grades of the army are almost exclusively filled up by needy members of the *Tchinn*. Their pay being scanty (a Colonel receiving £32 a year, and a Captain £12), they have recourse to wholesale and open plunder, which often brings them in as much as from three to four thousand pounds per annum. The funds for the maintenance of each regiment are placed in the possession of its commanding officers, who have thus no difficulty in carrying out their dishonest designs. Cases have been known of officers receiving and appropriating to themselves the pay of men who have died in battle, or disease, or who have never existed at all except on paper; of sending the horses of their regiments to grass, and retaining the forage money; and of stinting the troops of food and clothing, or buying unwholesome supplies at low prices, and pocketing the difference. Whole regiments have frequently fallen a prey to disease and death in consequence; and thus have the chances of war been turned against the Czar, and the victory of his opponents secured by his own Generals. Bad roads, unwholesome or scanty food, tattered and insufficient clothes, all tell in time of war, and disease and starvation often cut down the troops before they reach the scene of action.

It frequently happens that the men must be lashed with the knout before they will do their duty; and all the zeal they show when they are roused is only terror, at the best, and all their bravery is but cowardice of the dirtiest dye; for not the prizes of an honourable ambition, not the thought of freedom, and the desire of doing well, nerve their arms in the hour of need; but they face the foe from fear of the knout at their backs. These remarks do not apply, however, to the Imperial Guard, who are better drilled, better paid, and better accoutred than the other divisions of the Russian army, and commanded by officers sprung from the higher order of nobility, whom the Government compels to defray all the expenses of mounting the cavalry corps from their own private exchequers.

The pay of a Russian soldier is eight roubles a year. If he be married, he receives a trifling sum in addition, together with an additional half-pound of coarse wheat flour, and quarters in the barracks. The State likewise allows a portion of flour to each male child, but nothing whatever to the female children. The allowances set apart for each soldier are so insufficient, independently of the roguery practised upon them by their rapacious paymasters, that the soldiers, when not in active service, are constantly compelled to gain their livelihood by letting themselves out at so much per day to any one that is in want of hands. The Russian army is kept up by conscription, the duties of which de-

volve upon the feudal nobility, each of whom must furnish a certain number of soldiers from his estates. The age of liability to be drawn as a soldier is from twenty to twenty-five, in ordinary cases. Every estate of five hakens has a right to retain four of its liable peasants, on the payment by the Boyard of 1000 roubles in cash, or 100 roubles a year for fifteen years. The father of a family of two is liable to be called to arms, but the father of three or more children is exempt. No man is too vile to be a soldier, in Russia; drunkards, thieves, mendicants—all are enlisted indiscriminately, because no inquiries are made as to previous character and pursuits, so they be hale in body. Such are the men to whom the Czar looks for aid in the day of peril.

THE NAVY.

Russia had no navy before the time of Peter the Great; and, even at his death, what it had consisted only of a few light craft, unworthy the name of ships. Catherine II. followed out, to some extent, the example of her illustrious ancestor; but it is chiefly to the Emperor Nicholas that Russia owes her navy. The Russian navy consists of three fleets, called the Blue, the Red, and the White, which are respectively stationed at Sebastopol, Kronstadt, and Arohangel. The fleet in the Baltic (according to the "Almanach de Gotha") is composed of 1 ship of 120 guns, 3 of 110, 15 of 84, 12 of 74, 30 of from 60 to 74, 20 steam-boats, and several corvettes and brigs. The fleet in the Black Sea is composed of 3 ships-of-the-line of 120 guns, 3 of 110, 7 of 74, 8 frigates of 60, 10 of 44, 25 steam-boats, and corvettes and brigs. This yields a total of 137 vessels, manned by 50,000 seamen; with 63 admirals, 72 captains of first rank, 80 of second, and 211 lieutenants. The Russian navy is estimated by M. de Lagny at 240 vessels, with 9000 guns, and 80,000 seamen. The following extract from an excellent article in *Fraser's Magazine* for May, 1854, throws considerable light on the real state of the Russian Navy:—

The Baltic fleet—or, as the sailors of the Black Sea contemptuously call it, *la flotte de la mer douce*—is, to a very considerable extent, a paper institution. Its numerical force is theoretically fixed at twenty-seven sail of the line, nine frigates, nine steamers, nine brigs and corvettes, with a certain allowance of tugs and tenders. For Russian ships—in obedience to some mysterious law like that which regulates the development of the flowering organs of endogenous plants—arrange themselves according to multiples of the number three. What, then, must be the feelings of the Grand Duke Constantine, Lord High Admiral of All the Russias, when that eminent navigator reflects that the squadron at Helsingfors is not capable of exact ternary subdivision? We must at once confess our inability to understand this perpetual recurrence of the number three; but then there are many other things connected with the Muscovite navy which are equally incomprehensible. Why, e.g., are ships commanded by a general? why do naval officers of a certain rank wear spurs? why does a ship firing ninety-eight shots at a mark 30 feet long by 20, only hit twelve times?

It must be stated that nearly all of the seamen are pressed from among the inhabitants of the very centre of the empire, who abhor the name of the sea, and are far the most utterly unfit for the service. Even the knout fails to make seamen of them. The Czar's much-vaunted naval preparatory schools have not yet provided him with an officer of any great ability, or one whom he could trust to fill any important post. His best admirals and sailors are Finlanders and others who have voluntarily entered his service.

The wages of the seamen is very low (about sixty roubles a year); so that they, like all other *employés*, have recourse to cheating the Government, and plundering the supplies, in order to increase their miserable allowance. The seamen, when in harbour, are, like the soldiers, often compelled to sustain themselves by doing the work of artisans, instead of attending to the business of their ships. This state of affairs is, of course, highly detrimental to the prosperity of the Russian navy.

As an instance of the general unfitness of Russian seamen for sea-service, Mr. Oliphant states:—

It is hardly natural to expect that men whose maritime experience has, perhaps, never extended beyond the Bosphorus, should be as good sailors as those who have gone round the Horn once for every year of their lives. The seamen reared in such a nursery as our mercantile marine affords, must ever be a very different stamp of men from those reared in the dockyard of Sebastopol. It is said that when, upon a few occasions, the Russian fleet in the Black Sea encountered a gale of wind, the greater part of the officers and men were always sea-sick. It is certain that they have sometimes been unable to tell whereabouts they were in their extensive cruising ground; and once between Sebastopol and Odessa, it is currently reported that the Admiral was so utterly at a loss, that the Flag-Lieutenant, observing a village on shore, proposed to land and ask the way.

Another weighty argument to be put in the balance against the statement of Russian naval statistics, is the bad quality of the wood employed—principally unseasoned fir or soft oak—which seldom lasts longer than six or seven years, owing to the ravages of a worm indigenous to the southern waters, and the venality of the Russian shipwrights—more disastrous than the ravages of any worm—who "get up" naval craft in a slop style, although paid the highest prices for their work.

The Russian fleet, in the Baltic, is described as a miserable scarecrow, stationed at the mouths of rivers, and before forts, to terrify the enemy by its magnitude and showy appearance. But, like a real scarecrow, its chief merit is in remaining stationary. Weather-beaten tubs, floating hospitals, wrecks, and hulls crumbling "piecemeal" into the water, are all decked out in white canvas on a review day, and entered into the navy-list as men-of-war ready for active service.

"If," says Mr. Oliphant, "in estimating the strength of the Russian navy, we deduct the ships which, for all practical purposes, are unseaworthy, it will appear that the Black Sea fleet—that standing bugbear of the unfortunate Porte—will dwindle into a force more in proportion to its limited sphere of action."

THE CLERGY.

The Clergy are divided into two classes, viz., the Regular and the Secular, and are subject to three controlling powers, exclusive of the Czar—the Synod, the Consistory, and the *Prastinic* or *Gouvernement*. The principal of these is the Synod, from whose body the Czar elects the Archbishops, Metropolitans, and Bishops. The members of the Consistory are chosen by the Bishop, who has the power to annul all their decisions. The *Prastinic* is composed of Archpriests and subordinates, and is governed by the Superior of the most important convent. In every town there is a Deputy of the Church, whose office it is to appear as counsel for ecclesiastics in courts of law.

The Russian clergy are reported by all travellers to be quite as corrupt as any other class of individuals in the empire. They exercise no real authority in the State, and command little respect either from the nobles or the people; for it needs no learning, no examination, no character for morality and uprightness to become a priest—"a good pair of lungs, a reverend beard, long hair, and a black gown, with a metal plate attached to the breast, are the only requisites for religious candidates!" The clergy, who in other countries are the mediators between God and man, and the fathers of the poor, are too often the perverters of the Bible, the oppressors of the oppressed, and the encouragers of drunkenness, and its attendant evil passions. This deplorable state of things is chiefly to be attributed to the desire of the Czar to keep the people in ignorance. It has long been the policy of the Government to have an ignorant and needy priesthood; for it is evident that the admission of wise, learned, and benevolent men into the Church, would be the commencement of the education and advancement of the people, and the consequent downfall of the ultra-despotic power which at present overawes them.

The principle of honour is not encouraged either by precept or example. The clergy are compelled by law to make known to the authorities all plots confided to them in the confessional; and it is to the dishonesty of these mercenary confessors that the Government is indebted

for much important information. The ordinary members of the priesthood are allowed to marry once, but the higher functionaries not at all. The clergy are not liable to the conscription, but they are subject to the knout like the rest of the people.

They are described by Galovin, a native writer, as being for the most part in utter destitution. "Their pecuniary situation (observes that writer) is the disgrace of the Russian Church. The priests have no salaries, and their parishes have to maintain them. The rural priests receive an allotment of land, which they cultivate themselves as well as they can. Very few landowners pay them a fixed sum. In the towns they collect what they can from the contributions of the pious, and the dues for the performance of the various holy offices—a state of things which, as may be readily imagined, gives rise to all sorts of mendicancy, extortion, and petty cheating." Many of these priests cannot afford themselves shoes for every-day wear; and yet, judging from the immense revenues paid by the Church into the State exchequer, one would imagine that the clergy had a considerable portion of superfluous wealth. The unjust appropriation of Church dues for State emergencies is one of the principal causes of the poverty, and consequent depravity, of the clergy.

The priests draw a means of subsistence from the sale of certain holy pictures called "Bogs," of which they have a monopoly. These consist chiefly of representations of Jesus and the Virgin Mary, and are held forth as preventives against malaria, charms against evil spirits, &c. Some of these are considered to be more precious than others, on account of the miracles they are alleged to have performed, and are hired out for large sums. The pictures in most repute are, as we learn from M. de Lagny, "The Virgin with Three Hands," "The Virgin of Vladimir," and "The Bleeding Virgin," which pictures are believed to have been painted by the Holy Ghost himself. If the paint gets rubbed off the cheeks of one of these holy faces, the picture increases in value; for this is considered a sure sign that the saint is moved by the prayers of his devotees. The trade in relics is also very remunerative; the great toe of a dead person, an old rag, or a lock of hair, are as good as bank-notes in the hands of the clergy, who can at any time convert them into hard cash. There is a case on record relating to the discovery of an old tombstone, bearing the name of a "holy man," which the priests exhibited before dense crowds of awe-struck fanatics. The blind repaired thither to purchase grains of the stone-dust to throw into their afflicted eyes; and old women rolled about in the mud in front of the relic "that their devils might be cast out."

"Prayers for the Imperial Family," says Golovin, "occupy two-thirds of the time in the Russian Ritual; and though the statement may seem incredible, the priest, when he divides the bread, blesses the offering in seven portions: the first of these is in honour of the Imperial Family; Christ, the Virgin Mary, and the whole Hierarchy follow after. The idolatry of the Czar—and I do assert it unequivocally—is carried in Russia further than the worship of God!"

THE MESTCHANE; OR, MIDDLE CLASS.

The *mestchané* are the intermediate class between the nobles and the serfs, and are divided into two separate classes—the merchants and the tradesmen. The merchants, amongst whom are very few native Russians, are among the most enlightened body of men in the empire, and, by subscribing for the opening of hospitals and benevolent institutions, often do a great deal towards alleviating the miseries of the many. The tradesmen, or retail dealers, are compelled by law to reside in the towns, and are, like the serfs, subject to the conscription.

Generally speaking, the native Russians make but indifferent merchants—all the principal manufactures of Russia being of foreign origin, and under the supervision of foreigners. The prohibitive policy of the Government is alone the cause of the inferiority of Russia as regards her commerce; and what little external trade she has is principally in the hands of Englishmen, Frenchmen, Germans, and Armenians.

The only merchants (says Mr. Oliphant) who are able to engage directly in foreign commerce, are those belonging to the first or second guilds—the latter only to a limited extent. The duty for a licence, which confers this advantage, is so high, and the capital required by Government, before it can be obtained, is so great, that comparatively few are enabled to embark in the extensive transactions involved by foreign trade. So effectually is this system calculated to prevent any addition to the Russian mercantile community, that, notwithstanding the Black Sea trade so extensively and so recently called into existence, there are only four more merchants in the first guild now than there were fifteen years ago; while, on the other hand, the number of peasants holding certificates, enabling them to trade within the empire, is increased by one-third, during the same time, thus showing that the commercial relations of the interior have improved by virtue of that foreign trade which has not benefited the merchants of a higher order. At the same time it is evident that it is highly prejudicial to the true interests of commerce, that it should be so largely exercised by an ignorant and half-civilised peasantry, who are only allowed certificates by the year, and are still in the condition of serfs.

The inhabitants of the provinces are supplied with goods and provisions by means of fairs, which are held in all parts, and are chiefly frequented by traders and pedlars from the interior of Asia, and from China. Of these, the most celebrated is that of Nijni Novgorod, at the distance of about three days' journey from Moscow.

It would be hopeless (says Mr. Oliphant, with reference to the Fair of Nijni Novgorod) to attempt a description of the different merchants and shopkeepers, or to enumerate the variety of articles exposed for sale. The Bukharians, Persians, and Georgians inhabit one quarter, which is likely to prove the most interesting to the stranger. It is a convenient arrangement no less for the sight-seer than the merchant, that the fair is divided into quarters devoted to the sale of different merchandise. The Ketaiki Red, or Chinese division, is at once distinguishable by the rows of square leather boxes, which contain the tea. In the cutlers' quarter I was surprised to find so great a preponderance of Russian ware. * * * * * Those articles of commerce to which most attention seemed directed, and which form the main features of the fair to the stranger's eye, were teas and furs from the East, and cotton goods from the West. England supplies the great quantity of indigo which is annually sold here, and used extensively as a dye throughout Russia. The Governor's house, to which is attached the police-office, is a large well-built edifice; the whole of the lower story is devoted to commercial purposes, and forms an Eastern-looking bazaar, quite in keeping with the shawls and carpets here tastefully arranged for sale. Besides tea from China, the barges down the Kaura bring quantities of Siberian iron, furs, and skins, together with curious-looking wooden boxes, covered with lacquered tin, which seemed to be in great request; while madder, hides, dried fruits, Caucasian wines and fish, are among a few of the articles which come from the countries bordering on the Caspian. It was an endless source of interest to us Westerners to explore the Eastern quarter; while no doubt our Western manufactures prove still more attractive to the ragged-looking Khirghees, or half-tamed Tartars. All distinctions of rank are forgotten in that more engrossing pursuit which attracts people so many thousands of miles, and through so many difficulties.

Among the scanty middle-classes of Russia we should not omit to mention the Germans and the Jews. There are many German colonies in the southern provinces who enjoy a degree of freedom that makes them prosperous, whether as merchants or cultivators of the soil. It is to be regretted that so intelligent a traveller as Mr. Oliphant was prevented by accidental circumstances from visiting these colonies, between Saratow and Sarepta, and favouring the world with the result of his experience concerning them. The chief Jewish colony is that of the Karaites, at Tchoufut Kalé. Mr. Oliphant says of it:—

As almost all the Karaites are engaged in trade or manufacture, and as they observe the most scrupulous honesty in their dealings, it has naturally followed that they are a prosperous and thriving community; while, as if an exception had been made in favour of this portion of that interesting people whose unhappy destiny has been so wonderfully accomplished, probably the only settlement exclusively Jewish which still exists is the fortress of Tchoufut Kalé—a refuge which God seems to have provided for those only who worship Him purely in the manner of their fathers. The population of Tchoufut Kalé has, however, dwindled down to a very small remnant since trade has increased, and additional facilities have been afforded for settling in more convenient positions than upon the

summit of one of the highest crags in the Crimea. The population of the seaport of Eupatoria is composed mainly of Karaites, nearly two thousand of whom are now resident there, and some of them are wealthy merchants.

THE KNOT.

The principal means by which the Czar governs his people is the knout. An invention more diabolical, or a mode of punishment more barbarous in its cruelty, was never heard of, or even imagined, among savages and cannibals.

The knout consists of a thong of leather, about five yards in length and an inch in breadth, having a wooden handle at one extremity, and verging in a point towards the other. The following description, from the "Knout and the Russians," will give the reader a good idea of what the knout really is:—

Conceive, reader, a robust man, full of life and health. This man is condemned to receive fifty or a hundred blows of the knout. He is conducted, half naked, to the place chosen for this kind of execution. All that he has on is a pair of simple linen drawers round his extremities. His hands are bound together, with the palms laid flat against one another, and the cords are breaking his wrists; but no one pays the slightest attention to that. He is laid flat upon his belly, on a frame inclined diagonally, and at the extremities of which are fixed iron rings; his hands are fastened to one end of the frame, and his feet to the other; he is then stretched in such a manner that he cannot make a single movement, just as an eel is stretched in order to dry. This act of stretching the victim causes his bones to crack, and dislocates them—but what does that matter? In a very little time his bones will crack and be dislocated in a very different manner. At the distance of five-and-twenty paces stands another man: it is the executioner. He is dressed in black velvet trousers, stuffed into his boots, and a coloured cotton shirt, buttoning at the side. His sleeves are tucked up, so that nothing may thwart or embarrass him in his movements. With both hands he grasps the instrument of punishment—a knout. The signal is given: no one ever takes the trouble to read the sentence. The executioner advances a few steps, with his body bent, holding the knout in both hands, while the long thong drags along the ground between his legs. On coming to about three or four paces from the prisoner, he raises, by a vigorous movement, the knout towards the top of his head, and then instantly draws it down with rapidity towards his knees. The thong flies and whistles through the air, and, descending on the body of the victim, twines round it like a hoop of iron. In spite of his state of tension, the poor wretch bounds as if he were submitted to the powerful grasp of galvanism. The executioner retraces his steps and repeats the operation as many times as there are blows to be inflicted. When the thong envelopes the body with its edges, the flesh and muscles are literally cut into strips, as if with a razor; but when it falls flat, then the bones crack. The flesh, in that case, is not cut, but crushed and ground, and the blood spurts out in all directions. The sufferer becomes green and blue, like a body in a state of decomposition. He is removed to the hospital, where every care is taken of him, and is afterwards sent to Siberia, where he disappears for ever in the bowels of the earth.

Such are the everyday experiences of Russia; such are the scenes to which the Czars inure their people, in order that they may know that they are slaves, and that their wretched bodies are the absolute property of the Emperor, to scourge and torture at his will.

There are other modes of punishment in Russia, of which it will be as well to make mention, such as impalement, and the rod—which last is inflicted by an entire regiment of soldiers, and commonly known by the name of running the gauntlet.

We cannot do better than quote the following instance of Russian "caning" from M. de Lagny's excellent book, and of which that writer was an eye-witness:—

The culprit was condemned to six thousand strokes of rods; and, twenty-four hours after, six thousand men, ranged in two parallel lines, in a plain without the city, awaited, armed with small sticks of green wood, about the size of the little finger, for the hour of execution. The condemned was conducted in a cart, escorted by some men. No priest had attended him. He was bound, and dressed in a pair of drawers, wound round and below his hips, and fastened by a string. The rest of his body was naked, and only covered by a soldier's cloak, which they had thrown over his shoulders. They made him get out, and fastened his two hands tightly to the mouths of two muskets, crossed to the heights of the bayonets with which they were armed. In this situation, the hands resting on the barrel, and the points of the bayonet upon the breast of the criminal, a rolling of drums was heard; immediately all the officers entered their ranks, and two sub-officers came to take the muskets, which they constantly held in the same manner as a soldier who goes backwards holding the bayonet before him. Here, again, admire the barbarity—the refined intelligence of this people! The man, at a given signal, must advance with slow steps between the two ranks of soldiers, who, each one in his turn, must strike him vigorously on the loins. Pain might suggest to us the idea of passing as quickly as possible through the midst of this hedge of executioners, to avoid the number and violence of the blows, which cut the flesh from him. But he has reckoned without considering Russian justice; the two sub-officers step back, step by step, slowly, to give each one time to accomplish his mission: they retain or repulse the wretched being by thrusting the point of the bayonet into his breast. Each stroke must cut open the flesh, and make the blood gush. There is no pity. Each man must do his duty. The Muscovite soldier is a machine, who must have no feeling; and who be to his own shoulders if he shows any hesitation; for with him will receive from twenty-five to one hundred blows at the will of the general who has the honour of commanding those 6000 executioners. The Russian Government is scrupulous in the smallest details; it lays stress on everything being carried into effect. But with such men you run no risk. Thus they act with regard to a man who is being executed as they would at a review.

The sufferer advances to the nine hundredth stroke of the rods. He has not uttered a cry or a single complaint—a convulsive trembling alone, from time to time, announces his agony. The foam now begins to flow from his mouth, and the blood from his nose. After fourteen hundred strokes, the face, which for a long time had turned blue, becomes at once green. The eyes are haggard, they almost start from their sockets, from which flow large bloody tears, which wrinkle his face. He was panting—he sank down. The officer who had accompanied me opened the ranks for me, and I approached the body. The skin was literally ripped up; it had, properly speaking, disappeared. The flesh was chopped—almost reduced to a hash. Strips hung down over the flanks like so many thongs; other strips of flesh remained attached and glued to the bayonets of the executioners. The muscles were torn. No human tongue could describe this spectacle. The commander ordered the cart to approach which had brought the condemned. They placed him in it, lying on his stomach; and, although he had quite lost consciousness, they continued the punishment on the mangled body till the surgeon commissioned by the Government, and who had also followed step by step the execution, gave orders to suspend it, which did not happen till the sufferer was ready to expire. At this moment, two thousand six hundred and nineteen strokes had reduced the body to a hash!

To strike a dead body in Russia is not cruel enough; it would not inspire the slaves with sufficient terror. The man must live to submit to his sentence.

They carried the miserable man to the hospital, where, according to custom, he was put into a bath saturated with salt, then treated with the greatest solicitude till he is quite cured, in order that he may suffer the entire sentence. The penal laws of Russia always and everywhere present the most atrocious barbarity. It was seven months before this wretched man was cured and his health re-established; at the end of that time he was solemnly conducted to the same place of execution and suffered the appointed six thousand strokes. He died at the commencement of this second execution.

Nor is this all. It does not even require that a man be guilty of any crime to deserve the lashes of the knout or the cane. The police strike at pleasure without alleging any cause for their conduct, and if the sufferer utter a word of complaint, he will only receive redoubled blows. It must be stated, however, that the serfs have become so inured to corporal punishment, that this course of discipline is treated as a mere matter of course—or as an essential function and prerogative of the Government.

A BENGAL UNIVERSITY.—A very great scheme is announced in the *Bengal Hurkaru*, received by the last Overland Mail. This is the establishment of a Presidency College in Calcutta, which will in reality be a Bengal University. Pupils from all the Government schools throughout Bengal are to be admissible, and it is proposed to grant degrees—or rather diplomas—answering to our University degrees at Oxford and Cambridge. The idea of this University was roughly suggested by Lord Dalhousie, and it has been filled in, and modelled into shape by Mr. John Peter Grant, and Dr. Mouat, the Secretary to the Council of Education. The Government has sent home the scheme to the Court of Directors; and it is understood that it is accompanied by a minute from the Governor General giving it his cordial approval, and advising the Court at once to adopt it. A College is proposed to be built, to cost about £60,000, and a staff of professors, &c., is also proposed to be organised, which will cost about £10,000 per annum.

SEBASTOPOL AND ITS FORTIFICATIONS.

THE position of this great Russian naval port in the Black Sea, which has just been attacked by the combined French and English fleets, is almost central—Odessa, the Sulineh mouth of the Danube, the northern point of the Circassian coast, and Sinope, are, each in a right line, nearly equidistant from it 200 miles; while Varna and the Bosphorus are upwards of 300 miles. It is the principal source of the Czar's aggressive power in the south, its great strength rendering it proof against any sudden attack; while its commanding position enables it to send forth, as in the case of Sinope, a fleet at any moment to attack any unguarded point along the whole of the coast line of the Black Sea. It is evident, therefore, that Sebastopol must be either strictly and securely blockaded, or the fleet within its harbours destroyed. Its destruction would be one of the heaviest blows that could be dealt to Russia, as large quantities of military stores are collected there; and also the whole of the Black Sea fleet, which, with the public works and docks, cannot be valued at less than £20,000,000—the fortifications alone cost £7,000,000.

The Russians consider the fortifications of Sebastopol as a model of art and strength. A distinguished French engineer, M. Hommaire, who spent some years in Russia, in the employment of the Russian Government, gives a very different account. He mentions that in 1831, when the July revolution was threatening to upset the whole *status quo* of Europe, a London journal stated in an article on the Black Sea and Southern Russia, that nothing would be easier than for a few well-appointed vessels to set fire to the Imperial fleet in the port of Sebastopol. The article alarmed the Emperor's Council to the highest degree, and orders were immediately issued for the construction of immense defensive works. Four new forts were constructed, making a total of eleven batteries. M. Hommaire thus describes the fortifications:—

These four forts, consisting each of three tiers of batteries, and each mounting 250 to 300 pieces of cannon, constitute the chief defence of the place, and appear at first sight truly formidable. But here again the reality does not correspond with the outer appearance; and we are of opinion that all these costly batteries are more fitted to astonish the vulgar in time of peace, than to awe the enemy in war. The internal arrangement struck us as at variance with all the rules of military architecture—each story consists of a suite of rooms, opening one upon the other, and communicating, by a small door, with an outer gallery that runs the whole length of the building. All the rooms in which the guns are worked are so narrow, and the ventilation so ill-contrived, that we are warranted, by our own observation, in asserting that a few discharges would make it extremely difficult for the artillerymen to do their duty. But a still more serious defect than those we have named, and one which endangers the whole existence of the works, consists in the general system adopted for their construction. Here the improvidence of the Government has been quite as great as with respect to the dock-basins; for the Imperial engineers have thought proper to employ small pieces of coarse limestone in the masonry of three-storied batteries, mounting from 250 to 300 guns. The works, too, have been constructed with so little care, and the dimensions of the walls and arches are so insufficient, that it is easy to see at a glance that all these batteries must inevitably be shaken to pieces whenever their numerous artillery shall be brought into play. The trials that have been made in Fort Constantine have already demonstrated the correctness of this opinion, *vide rents having been there occasioned in the walls by the few discharges.* Finally, all the forts labour under the disadvantage of being *utterly defenceless on the land side.* Thinking only of attacks by sea, the Government has quite overlooked the great facility with which an enemy may land on any part of the coast of the Chersonese. So, beside that the batteries are totally destitute of artillery and ditches on the land side, the town itself is open on all points, and is not defended by a single redoubt. We know not what works have been planned or executed since 1841, but at the period of our visit a force of some thousand men, aided by a maritime demonstration, would have had no sort of difficulty in forcing their way into the interior of the place, and setting fire to the fleet and arsenals. Like everything else in Russia, the ships of war look very imposing at first sight, but will not bear a close scrutiny. From the venality of the administrative departments, it is easy to conceive the malversations that must abound in the naval arsenals. In vain may the Government lavish its money, and order the purchase of the needful materials; its intentions are sure to be baffled by the corruption and rapacity of its servants. The vessels are generally built of worthless materials, and there is no kind of peculation but is practised in their construction. A single cruise has been enough to make some of them unseaworthy.

The Russian topographer, Vsevolozsky, says:—

The town stands on a chalky stratum, which rises from the height of thirty feet at the extremity of the point to an elevation of 190 feet above the sea in the upper part. This elevation, with the steep coast opposite, which also consists of a calcareous rock, perfectly defends the bay, which, from the summit of the heights, appears to lie at the bottom of a deep cavity; and, indeed, at a very short distance from the shore inland, it is impossible to perceive the tops of the highest masts. Near the extremity at the point of land stands the house built in 1757 for the reception of the Empress Catherine II. Behind are situated the Admiralty, the Arsenal, and the houses of the naval officials; while higher up are the dwellings of the inhabitants of the town, the market and the Greek Church; besides which there is a Russian Church for the use of the sailors belonging to the Black Sea fleet. These men's hospital and barracks, and the magazines, are mostly situated on the other side of the harbour; and, together with the barracks of the garrison, built a short distance from the former, compose a sort of suburb. The town of Sebastopol itself is not much above a mile in length, and is nowhere more than four hundred yards wide. The harbour, the most important feature in Sebastopol, has been compared to that of Malta. The principal bay is about three miles and a half in length, with a width of three-quarters of a mile at the mouth, widening to nearly a mile, and then narrowing to 600 or 700 yards at the head. The entrance of the harbour is defended by strong batteries placed at the extremity of the two points of land that form the bay. Besides these there is another fronting the town, and two more on the double point on which the town stands, with a redoubt higher up. About a mile from the north of the bay the grand port for vessels of war forms a sort of small arm, running in a south-west direction. It is upwards of a mile and a half in length, with a width of 400 yards at the entrance, and has a little narrow creek of about 600 yards in length, in which ships can be laid up in ordinary with perfect safety. On the other side of the town, in Artillery Bay, is a similar creek, used to careen vessels of war.

Mr. Oliphant, who visited the Crimea in the autumn of 1852, gives an interesting account of the town and fortifications:—

The population of Sebastopol, including military and marine, amounts to 40,000. The town is, in fact, an immense garrison, and looks imposing because so many of the buildings are barracks or Government offices. Still, I was much struck with the substantial appearance of many of the private houses; and, indeed, the main street was handsomer than any I had seen since leaving Moscow, while it owed its extreme cleanliness to large gangs of military prisoners, who were employed in perpetually sweeping. New houses were springing up in every direction. Government works were still going forward vigorously, and Sebastopol bids fair to rank high among Russian cities. The magnificent arm of the sea upon which it is situated, is an object worthy the millions which have been lavished in rendering it a fitting receptacle for the Russian navy.

As I stood upon the handsome stairs that lead down to the water's edge, I counted thirteen sail of the line anchored in the principal harbour. The newest of these, a noble three-decker, was lying within pistol-shot of the quay. The average breadth of this inlet is 1000 yards; two creeks branch off from it, intersecting the town in a southerly direction, and containing steamers and smaller craft, besides a long row of hulks, which have been converted into magazines or prison-ships.

Nothing can be more formidable than the appearance of Sebastopol from the seaward. Upon a future occasion we visited it in a steamer, and found that at one point we were commanded by 1200 pieces of artillery; fortunately for a hostile fleet, we afterwards heard that these could not be discharged without bringing down the rotten batteries upon which they are placed, and which are so badly constructed that they look as if they had been done by contract. Four of the forts consist of three tiers of batteries. We were, of course, unable to do more than take a very general survey of these celebrated fortifications, and therefore cannot vouch for the truth of the assertion, that the rooms in which the guns are worked are so narrow and ill-ventilated, that the artillerymen would be inevitably stifled in the attempt to discharge their guns and their duty; but of one fact there was no doubt, that however well fortified may be the approaches to Sebastopol by sea, there is nothing whatever to prevent any number of troops landing a few miles to the south of the town, in one of the six convenient bays with which the coast, as far as Cape Kherson, is indented, and marching down the main street (provided they were strong enough to defeat any military force that might be opposed to them in the open field), sack the town, and burn the fleet.

In the batteries, a system of casemates, to the exclusion of every other principle, has been adopted, and their construction in this respect renders them remarkable in the annals of fortification. The freestone



SEBASTOPOL, AND ITS FORTIFICATIONS, ON THE BLACK SEA
COPIED, BY PERMISSION OF THE ADMIRALTY, FROM THE SKETCH TAKEN BY LIEUTENANT MONTAGU O'REILLY, ON BOARD H.M.S. "RETRIBUTION."

THE ILLUSTRATION.

At length we are enabled, by permission of the Lords of the Admiralty, to present to our readers a general View of the Town and Fortress of Sebastopol, on the Black Sea; together with a Panoramic Sketch of the adjacent Coast, and its several points of defence; from the Sketches made by Lieut. Montagu O'Reilly, during the recent visit of the *Retribution* to Sebastopol. Her stay extended to but three hours and a half, during which time Mr. O'Reilly, with remarkable celerity, sketched the whole place, including all the forts, batteries, man-of-war, and town. A fair copy of this Sketch was sent to the Admiralty; and this important and interesting illustration of the progress of the War our Artists have been permitted to copy. The Sketch is on a large scale, measuring about twenty feet in length.

of which they are built in soft; and, according to the statement of Captain Jesse—who works upon "Rounds and the War" contains some very interesting information on the subject, and who had extensive opportunities of examining them—the strength of the masonry is very questionable. The counterforts are filled with rubble, and several of the keystones of the arches have certainly been shaken by the firing of the guns. The Alexander fort has only one tier of guns in casemates, the upper tier being on *barbette*; the work terminates in a circular tower, the rampart of which is about six feet thick. The apertures or port-holes of all the casemates are small, so that there is no possibility of training the guns to the right or the left. Admiral Greig, who formerly commanded the Black Sea Fleet, considers this of no consequence, as, from the great number of guns

employed, upwards of twelve hundred, there is no point in or near the harbour which does not lie under a cross fire of sixty pieces of the largest artillery. The casemates are used as barracks, ten men occupying the space between each gun, and the general objection is that batteries on this principle are not capable of making a lengthened defence, as the smoke fills them rapidly, and so annoys the artillerymen that they cannot continue to work the guns. The Alexander battery is covered in the rear by the guns at the extremity of the wall of the town. This is the case with all the batteries; they give a mutual support to each other, which is the true spirit of fortification. Of course they are liable to attack from the land side, unless, as the public have been informed, the Russians are taking measures to throw up land defences. The Russians consider the harbour impregnable, but that remains to be proved.

The defences of Sebastopol are thus described—Five line-of-battle ships were moored head-and-stern across the harbour, so as to command the entrance of the harbour, which is so narrow that only one line-of-battle ship can enter at a time, exposed to a cross-fire of 400 heavy guns before entering the harbour; and, should this be accomplished, the assailants would have to withstand a raking fire of five or six line-of-battle ships, three of three decks. By land it is very different: the place being surrounded by heights, which might easily be carried, and this would place the town, all the heavy batteries, ships, and docks, at the mercy of an enemy.

The town is surrounded by a wall, loopholed. Within seven miles of Sebastopol there are several deep inlets, where landing could be effected in a dry-gate, free of all guns—those of the port out of

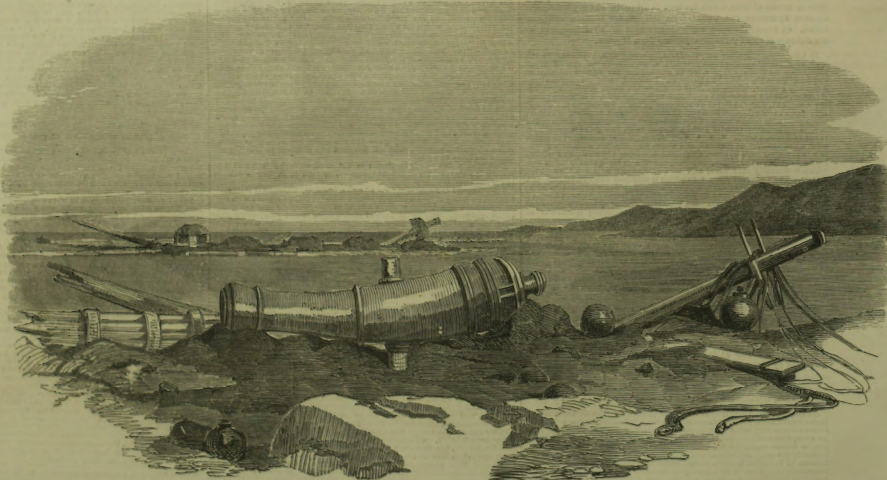
range; so that a sufficient force could be landed to overpower the enemy. (These capabilities are shown in detail in the Panoramic Views of the Coast, in the Number with which the present Supplement is published. The four Engravings, if placed in the order there shown, in a single line, from left to right, will represent the town and fortifications, with the adjacent coast.)

MEMORIALS OF SINOPE.

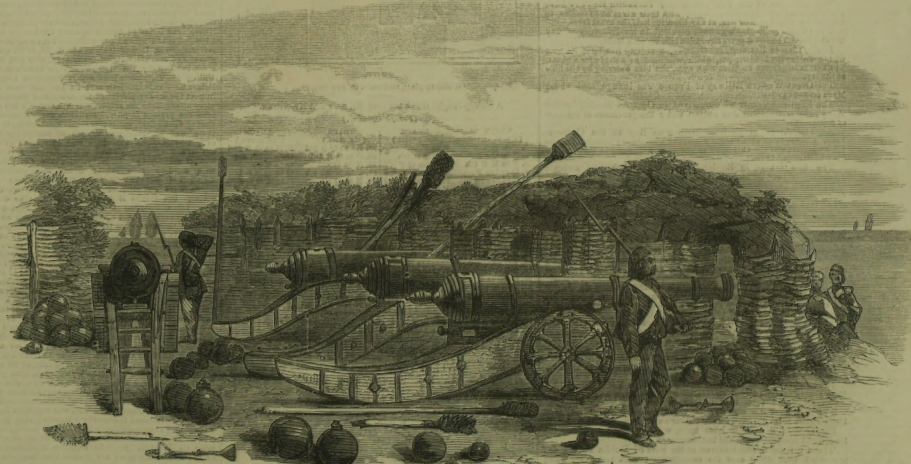
During the last visit of H.M.S. *Retribution* to Sinope, the accompanying relics of the attack by the Russian fleet, were sketched by Lieutenant O'Reilly. First is a 24-pounder Brass Gun, found upon the rocks of Sinope Bay, whither it had been blown from the Turkish frigate

in the distance. It should be added that the gun was found in the bent condition here represented.

The accompanying illustration shows the entrance to a Paucine Battery, in Sinope Bay, containing six 24-pounder Turkish guns and a mortar. The position represented was most severely handled by the Russian ships; under the Battery were two Turkish frigates, one of which blew up during the action. It may be as well to add a few words in explanation of what is termed a Paucine Battery. When artillery are required to act in exposed situations, any shelter that can be speedily erected is desirable; upon such occasions it is found that bags filled with sand or earth, when heaped together, make a good breast-work; in the present instance faggots were employed, and supported by a double row of piles driven into the ground.



24 POUND BRASS GUN, AND REMAINS OF TURKISH FRIGATE, AT SINOPE.—SKETCHED BY LIEUT. M. O'REILLY.



PAUCINE BATTERY, AND TURKISH ORDNANCE, AT SINOPE.—SKETCHED BY LIEUT. M. O'REILLY.

EPITOME OF NEWS—FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC.

A large consignment of live quails has just been received. The importation consisted of 6000 quails, in good condition. They were brought from Alexandria (Egypt), and were landed at Liverpool, from whence the birds were transferred by rail to London.

Workmen have lately been employed at the silver works of Orizabam, Bohemia, in casting a lion in massive silver, to be placed on the summit of a triumphal arch on the occasion of the Emperor of Austria's visit to Prague.

The electric telegraph is now in operation from Calcutta to Sipree, a distance of 1000 miles; and a summary of the English news received by the Overland Mail of the 24th February, passed over the lines.

The Kingston, emigrant-ship, about to sail from Southampton, has been fitted up with baths, and an oven for baking bread, with which the emigrants will be supplied twice a week.

The Queen of Spain has sent the Grand Cross of Isabel la Catolica to Omer Pacha and Mehemet Ali Pacha.

The Salisbury magistrates have decided that vehicles conveying yeomanly baggage are not exempt from toll, and that only regular troops can claim that immunity.

The celebrated plain of Marengo is about to be sold, together with the splendid building erected on the spot by the proprietor, including the collection of relics.

The first ripe strawberries grown in the open air, this season, were exhibited at Edinburgh, on Saturday last. This is three weeks earlier than last year, and six days earlier than any former year for the last twenty.

A medal has been struck in Paris to commemorate the triple alliance. The motto is: "Catholicism, Protestantism, Islamism—God protects them."

A few days ago the whole of the Custom-house establishment at Great Grimsby, was peremptorily suspended by order of the Commissioners of Customs in London.

The Latter-day Saints in Utah now number from 40,000 to 50,000; all creeds are tolerated in the territory, and the franchise is common to all.

The wreck of the *Taylor* was sold at Liverpool, the other day, by auction, for £480. The ship originally cost £20,000.

Queen Christina, of Spain, who was dangerously ill, of measles, is said to be convalescent.

Orders have been received at Southampton to telegraph the arrival of the King of Portugal to her Majesty as soon as he reaches that port.

Colonel Monti, who fought on the side of the patriots in Italy and Hungary, in 1848 and 1849, has just died at Turin, in the prime of life.

Water is now conveyed to Genoa in cast-iron water-pipes, of the immense length of fourteen miles.

The Duke of Somerset is said to have purchased "a vast and ancient chateau, on the shore of one of the most picturesque bays of the Mediterranean." The chateau is to be repaired, so as to form "a magnificent residence."

The laying of the first stone of the church to be erected in memory of the Queen of the Belgians, took place at Lachen, on Saturday last. The King and the whole family were present.

The iron trade is said to be in a very excited state, on account of the scarcity of pig iron.

M. J. Deluis, of Bremen, having ascended Mount Vesuvius with a party of friends lately, went too near the brink of the crater; and, the ground having given way, he fell in, and was killed.

The imports of wool into Liverpool last year, from all parts of the world, including coastwise, were 120,000 bales, or 14,000 tons.

The cattle and provision markets in Ireland are still advancing, and animal food has reached a price which almost places it beyond the reach of the labouring classes and persons of small income.

Two weeks ago Blidah, a town in Algeria, was nearly destroyed by an earthquake; several houses were knocked down and large oak-trees rooted up.

A practical miner has suggested a mode of using to advantage, for illuminating the mines, the gas generated in the mine itself, and which, at present, is productive of so much danger and death.

The United States post-office department has engagements with nearly 600 contractors for conveying mails by coaches, steam-boats, and railways; and the annual transportation of mails in that country is 61,892,542 miles—two-thirds the distance of the Earth from the Sun.

Lord Torrington has given notice of his intention to present a petition to the House of Lords, from the merchants and planters of Ceylon, in which they pray for the appointment of a Committee to inquire into and report upon the adulteration of coffee.

The Sunday movement, as it is called, gains ground in France. The notaries of Douai have decided that their offices shall be closed on Sundays. The proprietors of eleven of the principal shops at Châtillon-sur-Seine have also decided on not opening on the Sabbath.

The colony of British Guiana offers £1000 to the first introducer of machinery which will prepare 100 tons of clean plaitain fibre for market for the manufacture of flax.

The Scottish Society of Antiquaries has appointed a Committee to make arrangements for a National Exhibition of Scottish Portraits, in Edinburgh, in 1855.

The Egyptian Railroad is now in good working order, and answers exceedingly well. It is chiefly used when European or Indian passengers arrive in Egypt. English engine-drivers are employed on it. The speed is about twenty miles an hour.

A violent tornado visited Rungpoor, in Bengal, on the 10th of April, depopulating villages, and carrying before it houses, cattle, and everything that interrupted its course.

The smaller the population in Ireland, the larger the quantity of whisky consumed. During the year ending April 5th, 1853, the quantity taken was 9,820,000 gallons; this year, 10,350,000 gallons.

The directors of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway have given permission to all their servants, with their wives and families, to travel on any part of their line, at any time, for half the usual fares.

The Ceylon gold-diggings have resulted in no discovery of any importance. The few diggers have been laid up with fever.

In a garden at Barton, Lincolnshire, a redcap has built its nest within an inverted flower-pot, which was used as a shade for a plant. The nest is large, and contains nine eggs, the bird entering by the hole at the top.

The Great Western Railway of France was inaugurated at Le Mans on Sunday last.

The English steamer which arrived in Cork on Sunday landed thirty paupers, transmitted to Ireland under the provisions of the Law of Settlement.

An electric telegraph from Melbourne Bay to the Custom-house, a distance of about eight miles, had commenced working on the 7th of March, and the extension of the line to Geelong is said to have been determined upon.

The sums insured in England on farming stock, and exempt from duty, in the year 1853, amounted to £56,035,777.

The rank of Infante of Spain has been conferred, by Royal decree, on the young Duke of Parma, on whose father, lately murdered, it had been conferred in the same manner.

At Northampton, a young lad named George Walker, has become insane in consequence of having been operated upon repeatedly by mesmeristic lecturers in that town.

The declared value of our exports last year was £3,933,781; an increase of more than £20,000,000 over those of 1852.

The Spanish Government steamer *Francisco de Asis* left Cadiz on the 18th ult., for the eastward, with the ex-Queen of France on board.

The Worcester Festival Committee having written to Jenny Lind, with a view to secure her services for September next, she is sorry her plans for summer are of such a nature as will not allow her to accept "the flattering offer."

The *Espana*, of Madrid, announces that the police have authorised the public representation of combats between wild animals at Aranjuez. There is to be a fight between a hyena and dogs, and another between a bull, a leopard, and a panther.

Genoa letters state that a domiciliary visitation has been made at the residence of Mrs. Meart, an English lady, who is said to be implicated in the revolutionary attempt at Spezzia.

In the course of a "thunder squall" at New York, on the 15th May, the lightning entered an electric telegraph-office, and set fire to a file of messages hanging near the operator's head.

The labourers on the line of the Manchester, Sheffield, and Lincolnshire Railway, have turned out for an advance of wages.

Upwards of a million Irish men, women, and children have landed at Liverpool within the last four years.

The Customs duties received at the port of Dublin during the past week were £1000 over the corresponding week last year; being £17,969 against £16,900.

The directors of the German railways are at present concerting together to give greater speed to their trains, and particularly to those known by the name of express.

CHESS.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

P. Stamford.—A new Chess-club has just been established at Burton-on-Trent, under the auspices of the Rev. C. Rankin and Mr. H. Turton—the former a most distinguished amateur of the game, and the latter, one of the best Chess Problem composers of the day. For particular rs, address to either of these gentlemen.

ERIN-GO-BRACH.—It is rumoured that the old Dublin Chess-club is in process of re-organisation, under very promising patronage; but, we presume, the arrangements are not yet completed, or we should have been furnished with information on the subject.

PHILO-CHESS.—I Consult Ducaque, "Glossarium ad Scriptores," &c., edition 1737 2. Ozanum, "Recreations Mathématiques et Physiques," edition 1790.

J. P.—Your Problem shall be examined. The Solution of 535 is correct. E. B. C. of Princeton.—A communication despatched a long time since, it is feared, has miscarried. Let us hear from you again at your earliest convenience.

MUNGO.—No. The game is drawn. JUVENIS.—We have not room, and, besides, the times are not propitious. RECTOR.—The Chess-Players' Chronicle gives a monthly list of the Chess clubs in the United Kingdom, with their places and days of meeting.

A READER AT THE MUSEUM.—We don't wonder at your complaining. The deficiency of works on Chess in the Library of the British Museum has long been a crying reproach to the authorities of the printed book department of that institution. With the exception of a "Damenlo," purchased a short time back, the collection has not been enriched by a single copy of any book on mediæval Chess for the last twenty years.

I. L. A., C. W., Birk-head.—In Problem No. 535, Mate cannot be given in the way you suggest. See our solution in the last Number. In future, Correspondents must be good enough to understand that when no notice is taken of their solutions, it is because they are incorrect. Half our Chess column would be taken up weekly, were we to record all the failures sent us.

A BRISTOL SUBSCRIBER.—A player having advanced a Pawn to his 8th sq., can claim a Queen, even though his original King is on the board. The odds of "The Exchange" are not so much advantage as the Pawn and move.

W. N. P.—Boon's "Book of Games," contains a "Treatise on Draughts;" and, besides the two books you mention, there is a well-known work on this game by S. Argus.

G. H.—The Chess-player's Chronicle is published on the 1st of every month, by Kent and Co., 22, P.tern-st.-row; and can be procured through any bookseller in the Kingdom.

CHIRURG. RECUS.—It shall be examined. The solutions are both correct. A. C. C., of Howdon.—1. You have not succeeded with Problem 535. 2. The notation you propose was formerly adopted in this country, but has now quite gone out of vogue.

H. H. H.—See our notice to "Rim" in last week's paper. In the solution to Mr. Bridport's clever stratagem No. 533, White's first move should be R to K R sq. Black's first move, K to K 6th. The remaining moves are tolerably obvious.

AMATEUR, Edinburgh.—Easy, in three moves. A. M., South Wales.—If Black took the Queen, as you suggest, he would be mated by the Rook on the move!

OMEGA.—You had better address your inquiries to the author, care of the publisher. It is quite impossible for us to spare space to answer them.

G. H., Bath.—We strongly disapprove of what you call "Problem Chess-men," and advise you never to use them, if you wish to avoid mistakes in the positions.

ARGUS.—1. The term "doubled Pawn" is not of modern origin. In the Italian writers you will find—"Pedona doppiata o incavalcata." 2. As to touching a Piece of your own. The rule given in Bonaldi's is—"Chi tocca un suo pezzo, non dicendo accorcio accomodo, o simile, dee muoverlo, purchè possa."

STRICKLANDS.—We really cannot say. To ensure attention the same week, you must send very early. G. Mca.—No. 1 is clever and ingenious. No. 2 is very moderate. The Diagrams are almost unintelligible.

OMEGA, P. T. M., and Others.—The conditions of Herr Capraz's Enigma are—White to play, and mate in three moves. AN OCCASIONAL CHESS-PLAYER.—If your King is checked by the newly-made Rook, and you cannot capture it, or move your King, he is of course checkmated.

J. J., of Hanworth.—If, in Mr. Bigland's capital stratagem No. 514, Black play, for his first move, P to K Kt 7th, White follows—2. Kt to Q 4th (ch). 3. K to B 4th. 4. R to Q 7th—Mate.

B. T.—In the diagram of Mr. Grimshaw's clever little Problem, No. 536, there are two typographical errors. The Pawn at Black's Q B 6th should be a Black Bishop, and that at Black's Q R 4th should stand on Q R 5th. We have reprinted the position correctly among our Chess Enigmas.

R. M. S.—Nine-tenths of the mistakes in printing Chess Problems arise from the objectionable practice of using what are called "adhesive men," or from authors attempting to represent the figures of the Pieces, instead of describing them. The best mode in making a diagram of a chess position is to indicate the men by their initial letters, as—W K, for White King; B R, for Black Rook, &c.

SOLUTION OF PROBLEM No. 535, by Milo, Mrs. Philocody, Stricklands, Mus. Doc., Chirurg. Rues, Peregrine, Omega, S. L. M., Septimus, Philo-Chess, Armand, Omelon, M. P., Edipus, W. Grimshaw, are correct. SOLUTION OF ENIGMAS, by Jerome, Miles, Peregrine, Subaltern, Philo, Omega, Pluto, M.P., S. T. W., are correct. All others are wrong.

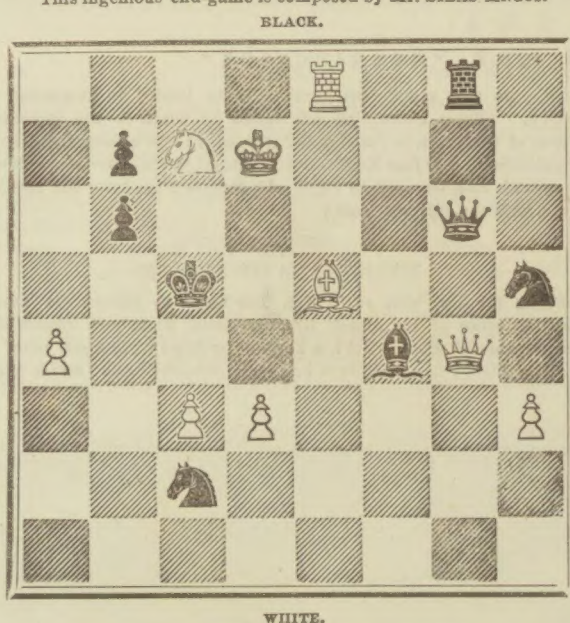
PROBLEM No. 536.

Owing to a misprint in the Diagram, the Problem admits of an easy solution. The following is the true position, which will be found not only ingenious, but, for a three-move stratagem, difficult also. The Solution shall be given next week.

WHITE.	BLACK.	WHITE.	BLACK.
K at K R sq	K at Q Kt 4th	P at Q 3rd, and Q	
Q at Q R 8th	B at Q B 6th	B 2nd	
Kts at K 4th, and	P at Q Kt 3rd	White to play and mate in	
Q B 6th	and Q R 5th	three moves.	

PROBLEM No. 537.

This ingenious end-game is composed by Mr. SILAS ARGUS.



WHITE.

White to play, and mate in five moves.

A stonily-fought Game between Mr. S—r and Mr. STERN.

(French Opening.)

WHITE (Mr. S—r.)	BLACK (Mr. Stern.)	WHITE (Mr. S—r.)	BLACK (Mr. Stern.)
1. P to K 4th	P to K 4th	23. Kt to Q B 3rd	K R to Q B 2nd
2. P to Q 4th	P to Q 4th	24. P to Q R 3rd	Q to K Kt 3rd
3. P to K B 4th	P takes Q P	25. R to Q 3rd	Q to K sq
4. Q takes P	Q Kt to Q B 3rd	26. P to K Kt 4th	Q to Q 3rd
5. Q to her sq	K Kt to K R 3rd	27. K to Q Kt sq	P to K B 3rd
6. Q B to K 3rd	P to K B 4th	28. P to K B 5th	P takes K B P
7. F to K 6th	P to Q Kt 3rd	29. P takes P	K R to K B 2nd
8. K Kt to K B 3rd	K B to K 2nd	30. Q to K Kt 4th	K to R sq
9. Q Kt to Q B 3rd	K Kt to his 6th	31. R to Q 6th	Q to K R 8th (ch)
10. Q B to Q 4th	Kt takes B	32. K to Q R 2nd	Q R to K B (ch)
11. Kt takes Kt	K B to Q B 4th	33. P to K 6th	Q to K R 7th
12. Q to Q 2nd	Q B to Q Kt 2nd	34. Q to Q 4th	K R to K 2nd
13. Castles	Castles	35. R to Q 7th	K R to K sq
14. P to K R 3rd	Q to K R 5th	36. P to K 8th	Q R to K Kt sq
15. KR takes Kt (a)	Q takes R	37. P to K B 6th	Q to K R 4th
16. K Kt takes P (b)	B takes Kt	38. Kt to K 4th	Q to K B 2nd (ch)
17. Q takes B	Q to K R 3rd	39. P to Q Kt 3rd	Q to K Kt 3rd
18. P to K Kt 3rd	R takes K B P	40. K to Q Kt 2nd (d)	P takes K B P
19. Q takes Q P	Q B to K B 6th	41. Kt takes P	Q to K Kt 2nd
20. B to K 2nd (c)	B takes B	42. Kt takes K R	Q takes Q (ch)
21. Kt takes B	K R to K B 2nd	43. R takes Q	
22. Q to Q 4th	Q R to Q B sq		

(a) Very well conceived. White, however, does not make quite so much as he might have done of the attack this sacrifice afforded him.
(b) Much better to have taken this Pawn with his Kt, since, if Black took again with the Pawn, he must evidently have lost his Queen.
(c) Here, again Mr. S—r plays below his mark. B to Q B 4th would have been greatly superior to B to K 2nd.
(d) A sound precautionary move, and not a lost time, as young players would think it to be.

CHESS ENIGMAS.

No. 573.—By Herr F. CAPRAZ.

White: K at Q B 3rd, R at K R sq, B at K 7th, Kt at Kt 5th; Ps at K 3rd, K B 4th and 6th, K 5th, and Q B 7th.

Black: K at K B 4th, P at K B 2nd.

White to play, and mate in three moves.

No. 574.—By J. PHENIX.

White: K at K Kt 8th, B at K Kt 2nd, Kts at K R 5th and Q Kt 5th; Ps at K Kt 3rd, K B 4th, and Q Kt 6th.

Black: K at K R 3rd; Ps at K R 2nd, K Kt 5th, K B 4th, and Q Kt 2nd.

White to play and mate in four moves.

THE SUPPLY OF MUSKETRY AND SMALL-ARMS FOR THE BRITISH ARMY.

The Select Committee appointed to consider the cheapest, most expeditious, and most efficient mode of providing small-arms for her Majesty's Service, have published their Report. The Committee first directed their inquiries to the complaints of the Board of Ordnance, in regard to the difficulty of procuring muskets; next, they obtained all the information which they could collect as to the plan of a large Government factory for the production of muskets; and, lastly, they heard from the contractors, and from other persons connected with the gun trade, the statements and suggestions which they had to offer in reference to the present system, and to the best mode of securing a cheap, expeditious, and efficient supply of small-arms hereafter.

Lord Raglan, the Master-General, stated that he was charged with the responsibility of providing a sufficient supply of small-arms for the defence of the country, and that he was not satisfied with the present mode in which that supply was obtained. He added, that his objection did not apply to the details of the system only, but that he considered it unsafe for the country to go on without substituting for its arrangements by which the supply of small-arms should be independent of contractors. His opinion with regard to the proposed Government factory was founded on the information given to him by Mr. Anderson, and the report of a committee of officers assembled to consider this matter. Sir T. Hastings, a member of the Board of Ordnance, and Comptroller of Stores, gave evidence to the same effect. He referred to the experience of the last three years as a convincing proof of the impossibility of obtaining a sufficient supply of muskets under the present system. In May, 1851, the Board of Ordnance took steps to procure 28,000 rifled muskets. The contracts were entered into in February, 1852, and the muskets were not delivered until November, 1853. Again, in April, 1853, contracts were entered into for 2000 artillery carbines, and of these 500 only have been as yet delivered. So again, in August, 1852, a rifled musket of a new pattern was decided upon; 20,000 barrels were ordered, but the offers to contract were so unsatisfactory that they had again to be advertised for. The only tenders, however, were from the same parties; and so great was the delay that the Board had only been able to enter into a contract for setting up, to be completed in September, 1854. Sir T. Hastings read many letters from the contractors assigning various reasons for these delays—"Combinations and strikes amongst the workmen," "Difficulty in procuring coal," "Illness of a skilled artisan," "Accident to machinery," &c., were adduced as causes of delay, and excuses for failure in the fulfilment of the contracts. Sir T. Hastings informed the Committee that a large supply of muskets of the new pattern were now required to be provided as speedily as possible, namely:—

For the Line	150,000
For the Artillery	14,000
For the Militia	100,000 at least
Pensioners	16,000
Coast Guard	14,000
Marines	12,000
Navy	30,000
Channel Islands Militia	6,000
Colonial Corps	5,000
	347,000

In addition to this number the highest military authorities considered that there should be in store for the home service 450,000 stand of arms; whilst the number required in the Colonies amounted to 150,000 more. The total number would, therefore, be upwards of 900,000. When this number had been provided, a supply of 30,000 muskets in each year would, it was believed, suffice to replace those worn out in the service. The musket is considered condemnable at the end of twelve years. For the speedy and economical supply of this large amount of muskets the Board of Ordnance proposed to take the whole manufacture into their own hands, and they accordingly directed plans to be prepared for an establishment capable of producing 500 muskets a day.

The Committee, in endeavouring to ascertain the grounds upon which the Board of Ordnance had arrived at this conclusion, found that Lord Raglan and Sir T. Hastings stated that they had been guided in their opinion partly by the report of the Commissioners who, during the year 1853, visited the manufactories of the United States, and partly from communications with persons conversant with machinery. The advantages of producing muskets by machinery were said to be—cheapness in the manufacture, an exact similarity in the several parts, so that they may be readily interchanged and replaced; and, above all, the facility of rapidly producing muskets, and of increasing or reducing the supply according to the requirements of the time. Sir T. Hastings expressed his belief that these advantages are now secured to the United States by the system there adopted, for they possess, he says, two factories, each capable of producing 30,000 muskets a year. He also referred the Committee to the establishment of Colonel Colt. Mr. Anderson, the chief engineer in the Royal Arsenal at Woolwich, informed the Committee that he had directed his attention during some months to the manufacture of muskets by machinery, and, although he considered that there was as yet little machinery in England specially adapted to this purpose, there was abundance of talent to produce such machinery if required. Mr. Anderson admitted that he was not practically acquainted with the manufacture of muskets, but, as a mechanic, he thought that many parts of the rifled musket now adopted might be much improved. He was also of opinion that a more definite system of producing and boring barrels might be devised, and that an improvement might be introduced in the forging process of the bayonet.

The attention of the Committee having been directed to the American musket, they were desirous of seeing one of the muskets which had been made by machinery, in order that they might compare it with the workmanship of the rifle musket approved here by the highest military authorities. The Board of Ordnance could not comply with this request, and admitted that they had never themselves seen the musket to which they referred. The Committee examined Mr. Whitworth, the eminent engineer and manufacturer of machinery, who had been during last year commissioned by the Government to visit the manufactories of the United States, and whose report has been lately presented to Parliament. Mr. Whitworth said he had not been specially directed to inspect the manufactories of fire-arms, and had not therefore given the close attention to the subject which he would have done if he had foreseen the present inquiry. Mr. Whitworth's evidence was to the effect that at Springfield, the Government establishment of the United States, there was an ingenious system of machinery for the manufacture of gun-stocks. A gun-stock was completed in his presence within the space of twenty-three minutes, and this operation was performed entirely by machinery, with the exception of some polishing with sand-paper, a labour which was performed by hand, but which did not occupy more time than two minutes. Mr. Whitworth does not suppose that they could work at this rate constantly, but thinks it would be safe to take double as the average time for completing a gun-stock. As regards working in iron, Mr. Whitworth did not consider the Americans equal to the manufacturers of this country. He did not examine a musket in America minutely. It was his opinion, that with regard to an American musket, taking a number of the different parts of it, there was greater identity than in the rifles manufactured in this country, because so much more attention was paid to the machinery, and also to the persons attending that machinery; but he thought that the parts of one individual musket were not so good in America as the rifle which he had seen in England. Mr. Whitworth would not recommend the establishment in this country of a Government factory on a scale equal to producing 500 muskets a day, but he would recommend the Government to have an establishment as perfect as could be made, to produce a limited number, and to set an example to other gunmakers. Mr. Wallis, the head-master of the Government School of Art at Birmingham, had also visited the United States as a Commissioner. He said that the fit of the other parts of the musket made at Springfield, into the stock, were, in his opinion, perfect, as he saw the lock, the barrel, and the furniture put into a gun stock, each part being fetched indiscriminately from a heap, and he saw no choice made in the portion to be fitted; but he has no practical acquaintance with the manufacture of fire-arms; and his knowledge of machinery had been acquired from residence in manufacturing towns, and not from any superintendence of a factory or business necessarily connected with machinery. The Committee also examined Colonel Colt; and several members of the Committee visited his establishment, to which their attention had been specially directed. From his evidence, it appears that the Government of the United States do not provide their muskets solely by a Government factory, but obtain a large portion by contract from private manufacturers. As regards the cheapness which may be expected to result from an increased employment of machinery in the production of rifled muskets, Colonel Colt said that many parts of the new musket would

necessitate the employment of complicated and expensive machines: he thought the arm might be in some respects simplified, and the cost of its production thereby reduced, without detracting from its efficiency. The price of the musket must depend in great measure upon the quantity to be produced according to a given pattern. If the Government were to advance £100,000 for machinery, the manufacture must be at first slow and the musket more costly. Colonel Colt would not like to deliver any in the first year, but in the course of ten years he thought he should be able to produce a million muskets, at a price not exceeding 30s. each. If only a smaller number were required, the cost of the musket would be increased. Mr. Nasmyth, the well-known inventor of the steam-hammer, considered the systematic introduction of machinery into the gun trade to be feasible and highly desirable. About four years ago he supplied the Russian Government with some machinery for producing parts of a musket: he believes that if proper steps were taken, a factory might be established for £150,000, which would be ready to commence working in eighteen months from the present time. He considers that in the gun trade, the masters are in a state of dependence upon the skilled workmen, from which they can only be emancipated by the substitution of machinery for hand labour. Mr. Nasmyth had, however, not seen a musket produced entirely by machinery.

The Committee having heard all that could be urged in favour of a Government manufactory for muskets, came to the conclusion that they had not received evidence sufficient to satisfy them that a Government factory would afford the cheapest, most expeditious, and most efficient mode of providing muskets. They, therefore, recommended that the system of contracting for the supply of small-arms should not be discontinued without further proof that a sufficient supply cannot be obtained under it. The Committee added, that the complaint of the contractors, that the orders of the Government for small-arms had not been continuous, raised a question of great importance. "There is no doubt," they say, "that a large demand for small-arms, spread over a number of years, would attract to the gun trade a supply of hands sufficient to meet the demand. Even in the first year considerable additional supplies might by this means be attained, and in each successive year the increase would be augmented. On the other hand, it has been observed that it would not be judicious on the part of the Board of Ordnance to pledge themselves to large and continuous orders, for in this age of rapid invention, such a course might be attended with very inconvenient consequences. For instance, the pattern of 1853 has been substituted for that of 1851; therefore, if large orders for the pattern of 1851 existed, they would be orders for a now obsolete arm. Some new pattern may soon supply the place of that which is now ordered. The contractors, however, state that the continuous employment which they desire need not depend upon the identity of the pattern."

The Committee does not appear to have devoted its attention to ascertaining whether the Birmingham manufacturers were able during the last war to meet the great demand for muskets that was made upon them. With the view of supplying this deficiency, we have collected some particulars which will be of interest at the present moment.

In 1793 there were no establishments large enough to take the contracts of the Government, and the Board of Ordnance dispatched Lieutenant-Colonel Millar, an artillery officer, to Germany, to purchase muskets. In this service he was engaged for nearly two years, and purchased nearly a quarter of a million of small-arms. It was at this time, and for some years subsequently, the practice of the Ordnance department, when the Government needed a supply of arms, to engage with one or more individuals for the number required. These contractors again contracted with the trade, the Board of Ordnance sending down "viewers," or inspectors, from the Tower of London, to inspect them when ready for delivery. The barrels of these arms were either sent up to the Tower, to be proved, or they were proved in the private proof-houses of the manufacturers in Birmingham, under the superintendence of the inspector. About the year 1798 the Ordnance department purchased some land in Birmingham and erected a proof-house and view-rooms, for the purpose of proving the barrels and inspecting the arms after their completion. At the same time the Ordnance department began to make its engagements directly with the individuals employed in the manufacture of the barrels and the locks, and with the gunmaker to set them up complete. From 1793 to 1798 the Irish Ordnance Department made large demands upon Birmingham for fire-arms, to arm the Militia, Fencibles, Yeomanry, &c., required for the suppression of the Rebellion. During the same period the Volunteers in England and Scotland, who purchased their own fire-arms, gave orders which increased to a considerable extent the activity of the manufacture, both in Birmingham and London. But, notwithstanding the number of guns which were supplied during these years, the Government, in 1803, when war was again declared, found itself with an insufficiency. For an army of 177,000 men it had but 150,000 fire-locks. It was therefore obliged once more to have recourse to Germany, and purchased 293,000 firelocks, for about £700,000. "The state of destitution," says the writer of a scarce pamphlet, printed at Birmingham for private circulation, and a copy of which lies before us, "in which the arsenals of our country were at the period of the war in 1793, and afterwards in 1803, appears to show a remissness on the part of the Board of Ordnance in not having an adequate supply of small-arms, and more particularly at the latter of these periods. For, notwithstanding the bareness of our magazines at the Peace of Amiens, the Board of Ordnance then ceased giving out orders for any further supply of small-arms. Had it still kept the manufacturers employed during the interval of peace, they could have made the number of arms which the Government was compelled to purchase on the Continent, of a superior quality and uniform pattern, and at about one-half of the price." Notwithstanding the wants of the Government, the Board of Ordnance did not give any extensive orders in Birmingham until March, 1804, and these orders were at first executed with considerable difficulty, in consequence of the scarcity of hands. The manufacturers, at the peace, discharged a great number of their workmen, who became absorbed by the other trades of the town; but by degrees the greater portion of them, allured by the high wages to be obtained, returned to their old trade and from 1804 to 1815; the gun manufacture flourished in Birmingham to an extent never before or afterwards attained. From March, 1804, to December 31, 1809, there were made at Birmingham, for the Government, independently of fowling-pieces, and guns for the home, colonial, and foreign trade, 1,066,443 barrels, and 857,518 locks. During the thirteen years of war there were fabricated in private establishments in Birmingham and London, and at a small manufactory set up by the Government at Lewisham, 2,673,366 stand of arms. Of this number there remained in store, or in use in the army and navy after the pacification of Waterloo, 939,256; leaving 1,644,110 lost by the chances of war, or remaining in the hands of the allies. From 1803 to 1815 inclusive, Great Britain furnished to her allies and to her own army, navy, militia, and volunteers, upwards of three millions and a quarter of small-arms of various kinds, as appears from the following Table:—

Arms furnished to the allies (including muskets, carbines, pistols, &c.)				
Ditto	regular troops	2,143,643
Ditto	regular militia	349,882
Ditto	local militia	59,405
Ditto	volunteers	151,969
Ditto	navy	347,583
Ditto	navy	215,233
Total	3,227,715

Birmingham produced more than two-thirds of these guns in their complete state, and nearly the whole of the gun-barrels.

The following Table shows the number of Barrels for every description of Fire-arms produced in each year at Birmingham, from 1804 to 1815 inclusive:—

Years.	Muskets.	Rifles.	Carbines.	Pistols.	Total in each year.
1804	80,213	62	80,185
1805	110,833	2,938	3,120	1,158	115,049
1806	112,222	15,106	4,418	2,276	134,022
1807	155,839	1,873	6,536	8,942	173,190
1808	229,355	6,334	15,245	21,402	272,336
1809	265,049	1,433	5,571	16,608	288,661
1810	299,382	183	313	6,405	306,283
1811	316,760	1,886	178	3,611	322,435
1812	409,961	2,261	7,694	16,347	436,263
1813	412,918	466	24,878	51,576	489,838
1814	282,215	91	6,566	23,313	312,185
1815	98,689	442	4,117	103,248
Total	2,773,346	32,582	74,582	155,755	3,087,644

The following is the number of locks it produced within the same time:—

Years.	Muskets.	Rifles.	Carbines.	Pistols.	Total in each Year.
1804	81,021	20	81,041
1805	91,148	4,721	4,006	99,875
1806	102,047	11,980	114,027
1807	119,389	8,047	1,420	6,071	134,927
1808	175,589	5,947	1,899	9,440	192,875
1809	223,345	2,412	205	8,811	234,773
1810	290,539	1,288	24	10,880	301,931
1811	333,143	2,690	179	9,643	345,655
1812	412,234	184	9,585	24,291	446,244
1813	371,694	99	23,805	62,018	457,616
1814	247,396	3,610	20,091	371,188
1815	98,684	368	99,052
Total	2,616,229	37,338	45,101	15,044	2,879,303

The next Table shows the total number of complete Arms manufactured and set up in Birmingham during the war:—

Years.	Muskets.	Rifles.	Carbines.	Pistols.	Total in each Year.
1804	36,606	85	36,691
1805	50,789	839	200	51,828
1806	60,766	1,697	1,800	62,353
1807	58,823	1,788	1,800	61,911
1808	87,336	3,296	2,759	93,391
1809	148,600	557	2,217	151,374
1810	185,596	1,139	3,060	186,795
1811	219,873	1,924	5,074	226,871
1812	274,026	1,525	4,123	9,067	288,740
1813	279,681	497	17,934	22,531	320,643
1814	168,049	722	8,595	6,784	184,149
1815	68,800	727	8,126	982	78,635
Total	1,672,610	14,695	38,778	54,474	1,743,582

In the year 1804, the Government, with the view, as alleged, of checking the large prices demanded by the Birmingham gun manufacturers, and of increasing the supply, resolved to establish a gun manufactory of its own. The subject was not brought under the notice of Parliament until 1806, when the sum of £15,000 was voted for the erection of suitable buildings for the fabrication of locks and barrels, at Lewisham, near Blackheath. The further sum of £7000 was granted in the following year. Operations were not actually commenced until 1808. It was both predicted and wished by the Birmingham people, that Government would fail in its experiment; and they loudly complained of the unfairness of the competition. They alleged that the Government enticed away their best workmen; and asserted that, instead of manufacturing at a cheaper rate, it would ultimately be found that private trades could have supplied with sufficient promptitude, all the arms required, and at a cost considerably under what the nation would have to pay in turning gunmaker for itself. The result verified the prediction. Up to the 1st July, 1810, the Lewisham gun-factory had cost upwards of £66,900, and the Government was only in a position to turn out 25,000 barrels, and 18,000 locks in a year; while Birmingham, at a much cheaper rate, was turning out upwards of 300,000 barrels, 300,000 locks, and 186,000 stand of arms in a year. The Government had also an establishment at the Tower; but its operations were confined to the rough stocking and setting up of arms, with the materials supplied from Birmingham and Lewisham, and by different private manufacturers under contract with the Board of Ordnance. In consequence of the complaints of the Birmingham and London gunmakers, a commission of military inquiry was instituted to inquire into the working of both these establishments. The commission, after a long inquiry, decided in favour of the works pursued at the Tower, and against those of Lewisham. The commission recommended that the Ordnance department should confine itself to the setting up of guns, and that it should cease manufacturing both locks and barrels. The Board of Ordnance, however, resolved, notwithstanding the report of the commission, to continue its experiment; and, in 1813, obtained the authority of Parliament for the erection of a second gun-barrel and lock factory at Enfield, in Middlesex. This new manufactory was not completed until 1815, when the war was at an end.

LANDING OF THE ROYAL HORSE ARTILLERY IN THE BOSPHORUS.

THE large Illustration upon the next page is a scene of real life, which we are enabled to present to our readers by aid of the pencil of an Artillery officer. It is a memorable incident, inasmuch as it represents the first landing of the Royal Horse Artillery in the Bosphorus, on the 3rd ult. In the accompanying View, the nearest ship is the *Mercia*, No. 2 transport, having on board the left division of Captain Levinge's troop of Royal Horse Artillery. Behind this ship is No. 21 transport, Captain Levinge and one subaltern on board, with the right division of the troop. In the distance is the view of the Bosphorus, taken from the landing place; on the right, at the foot of the hills, is the barracks Koolleli, given over by the Turkish Government for the Royal Artillery; it is a roomy building, with stable accommodation for a very large number of horses, and the corresponding number of men for a cavalry regiment. The view from this point, looking westward towards Stamboul, or eastward towards the Black Sea, is very beautiful. In the extreme distance, disappearing round the left point of the Bosphorus, is the *Terrible*, on her return to the Black Sea, after having brought despatches from the fleet of the bombardment of Odessa, and repaired some slight damage which she received from the fire of the Russian guns.

THE BOMBARDMENT OF ODESSA.

The following extract from a letter of an officer of one of the vessels engaged at the Bombardment of Odessa appears in the *Dublin Evening Mail*:—

I have, thank God, been spared to give you an account of our first affray with the Russians, which took place last Saturday (April 22), at Odessa, when we destroyed the Imperial port, shipping, and property to a large amount.

The *Fauban*, French steamer, was obliged to leave the scene of action, having been set on fire by a red-hot shot, which penetrated the outer planking, and rolled down between it and the inner lining, towards the bottom of the vessel. Having burnt its way through inside, it was soon removed, and all put to rights again; but they were rather apprehensive of the ship blowing up, from its proximity to the magazine, which they cleared away directly.

The only loss of life on our side occurred on board the *Terrible*. A shot which came through the side caused splinters, which killed one man and wounded four others. This shot took an extraordinary course. Having passed obliquely through the side, it came in contact with the "combing" of a hatchway in the centre of the deck, bounded back at an acute angle to the same side, struck a gun, glanced from it into the port, and finally went overboard. At first, most of the enemy's shot and shell fell short; but after a little they got their guns to bear beautifully upon us, and were giving it to us thick and warm, when, by steaming astern, we dragged our anchor, and spoiled their range. It was a dreadful but glorious sight to see their magazine blow up—such cheering took place from our jolly tars. After we had silenced the batteries, and set the shipping on fire, our rocket-boats were pulling in to give them something more, when the Russians opened fire on them from other places; on which account we were obliged to blaze away again, and continue it till the signal of recall was hoisted by the Admiral, whose ship, together with all the liners, was anchored just at a nice distance to witness the day's proceedings.

As we passed the *Queen* and *London*, they manned the rigging, and gave the old *Terrible* three hearty cheers.

Some of the lookers-on said we fired splendidly; however that may be, we suffered far more than any of the ships engaged, which is attributed to our having been 200 yards closer in. At all events, our position was more favourable for the direction of the enemy's guns. Our gunner has just told me that we (*Terrible*), on Saturday, fired no less than 572 rounds of shot and shell, besides 51 rockets. We are now en route to Constantinople, as fast as we can steam, with intelligence of the Odessa affair.

CONSTANTINOPLE, April 28.—We have been quite lions here since our arrival from Odessa. No end to people coming on board to view a wounded ship—among them, many of the Guards. List of casualties in the *Terrible* during action:—One man killed, and four wounded. The ship struck in the hull in eleven places; stock of small bow-armor shot off; two links of sheet cable shot away; both paddle-box boats shot through; also paddle-boxes; fore-gangway ladder and paddle-bridge ladder shot away; two marling spars and two paddle-box boats' oars shot away; stanchions and crutch of port quarter-boats' davits shot away; starboard paddle-wheel and break damaged; starboard fore-castle hammock-cloth, berthing, and two hammocks knocked overboard, and number of ropes shot away.

By the last mail from Constantinople several letters have been received in the Tyne, from Shields captains who have escaped from Odessa; and, as these letters were written for the information of their

own family circles, and with no idea that they would come under the observation of any one connected with the press, they have especial interest. These simple and homely narratives contradict in every particular the despatches of the Russian General, Osten-Sacken, with regard to the bombardment of Odessa. Mr. John Tate, master of the barque *Princess*, reached Odessa with his vessel on the 3rd of April, seeking a cargo; and, four days after, as he was standing on the Mole, overheard the parley between the boat's crew of his countrymen belonging to the war-steamer *Furious* and the Russian authorities. His account of the transaction corroborates Captain Jones's report on every point, and he states that the steamer's boat was returning to the ship, and within fifty yards of her, when the Russians opened one of their batteries, and fired seven shots at her. About four days after this transaction, three English war-shippers entered the roads, and captured eight laden Russian merchantmen. This circumstance greatly exasperated the Russian authorities, and they put a guard of eight soldiers aboard of each English and French vessel in the harbour. The steamers, however, having taken their departure during the night, the guards were removed from the vessels next day. On the 20th, in the grey of the morning, Mr. Tate descried a fleet of large vessels approaching the harbour; and, suspecting that they were the Allied fleets, he quietly went ashore and got water and provisions aboard his ship. His vessel was in ballast, a good sailer, and the wind was fair for a run out of the harbour. Mr. Tate, therefore, took advantage of the confusion in the port consequent upon the appearance of the fleets, got in his anchor, and made a dash for the sea. The Russians observed his movements when too late, and gave chase to him with a boat filled with soldiers; but the *Princess* out sailed them, and in half an hour Captain Tate was under the protection of a large English war-steamer that came in towards the land to meet him. He was requested to bring to in the roads, and put himself under the protection of the fleet, and then to go aboard of the English Admiral's ship. Mr. Tate was cordially received by Admiral Dundas and Admiral Lyons. He is a very intelligent young man, and was able to give some valuable information with regard to the forts, batteries, the position of the powder magazine, and the furnace for making red-hot shot. He was also able to mark out the position of the French and English vessels in the harbour, and tell where a Russian war-steamer was lying. Mr. Tate having anchored his vessel in a secure position, witnessed the subsequent proceedings. He says that on the 21st a boat put off from the fleet in command of an English Lieutenant. She pulled in towards the shore with the Russian flag flying. They were met by a boat manned with Russian officials, and the following is Mr. Tate's version of the parley. The Russians asked the Lieutenant what he wanted? He replied that the Admirals requested that all the French and English merchant vessels be given up, and in exchange the fleet would liberate fifty Russian seamen who had been captured. The answer of the Russians was that the authorities considered all the English and French vessels, in the harbour, lawful prizes, and the subjects of those countries prisoners. "Then," shouted the Lieutenant, "if the demand is not complied with by sunset, make ready for your breakfast to-morrow morning!" The bombardment, as observed from the roads, Mr. Tate states had a fearfully grand appearance, more especially when the powder magazine blew up. During the fighting eight English merchantmen and two Frenchmen escaped from the harbour. The ruins of the buildings destroyed by the fleet burned for four days. The merchant vessels that escaped were convoyed across the Black Sea by war vessels.

The following is from a letter from Admiral Dundas, dated off Odessa:—

I own I feel annoyed at the remarks of a portion of the press at my lying all the winter at Therapia. If I had not done so, and had cruised for two months (in peace time), and had exposed my ships by such a foolish plan, what a state they would have been in, instead of, as they now are, in the finest condition imaginable! We arrived at Varna without a want, and found an Aide-de Camp from Omer Pacha, expressing a wish that early in April I would come near him; and there I was all ready, and in conjunction with the French fleet (eighteen sail of the line) and a dozen steamers. We are on the best possible terms with the French, and the utmost cordiality exists between us. Would you believe that the report of the Russian fleet having left Sebastopol and landed troops on the Danube, was all a falsehood, and destitute of truth? I had steam-frigates cruising all round the Black Sea, watching their movements; not one ship has ever left that port since we entered it. A few days ago we gave Odessa a little of our shot and shell. It was well done by the steamers—five English and four French, with six rocket-boats. I spared the town; and in a few hours we could have knocked both it and the mole, where the neutral ships were, into one mass of fire. The fort, Imperial mole, and Russian shipping were all destroyed. I did, in conjunction with my French colleague, what we considered our duty after the flag of truce had been fired on. Our guns carry beautifully.

We recapitulate the attack, as represented by our Artist. The steamers entered in two divisions. The first consisted of the *Samson*, *Furious*, *Fauban*, and *Mogador*. The *Samson* fired the first shot at the Imperial Mole, and the fire was instantly returned. The movement, as witnessed from the large ships, about three miles and a half off, was a most curious sight. When within about 2000 yards each steamer delivered the fire of her enormous guns, then wheeled round in a circle of about half a mile in diameter, each taking up the fire in succession. Thus they kept wheeling and twisting about like so many waltzers, without ever touching or getting into scrapes. The guns in the mole answered steadily, and in the course of an hour the *Fauban* came towards the fleets, on fire from red-hot shot, and riddled in several places. Happily, the fire was got under, and she returned to her port.

Mr. Oliphant, in his "Russian Shores of the Black Sea," describes Odessa as a more agreeable town than any other in the dominions of the Czar, which he had visited, but he was unable to go to so extravagant a length, in admiration of it, as his fellow passengers, on board the steamer, went:—

Hitherto my life had been rendered miserable by repeated allusions to the "Russian Florence." Some infatuated Odessians on board the steamer impressed upon me for two days and nights that nothing I had seen at Moscow or St. Petersburg could give me even a faint conception of the glories of Odessa, which, according to them, combined in itself the charms of all the capitals in Europe. The statues and the opera were Italian; the Boulevards and the shops, French; the clubs conducted upon English principles; and the hotels unequalled in Europe—the whole forming attractions which may surpass my most sanguine anticipations.

It struck me as somewhat singular, notwithstanding, to be told, upon asking what means existed of leaving this enchanting spot, that we should find it necessary to buy a carriage and post, as no diligence had as yet been established. Odessa, probably, is the only town in Europe containing upwards of a hundred thousand inhabitants, which cannot boast of some public means of conveyance other than a post telegraph, which is infinitely more barbarous than a Cape bullock-wagon, and only meant for the conveyance of feld-jägers and despatches.

It was evident that these benighted inhabitants of Odessa praised their city in utter ignorance of the merits of others. It could not seem strange to them that a pair of sheets should be charged a ruble extra in the best hotels, since they seldom or ever made use of them at home; while it was not to be wondered at that jugs and basins should seem superfluities to these who followed the mode of washing adopted on board the Russian steamer, which consisted in each man's trickling a little water into his friend's hands—so little, indeed, that but a very few drops of the precious liquid were spilt. Our exertions to obtain a basin on board evidently caused us to be looked upon as bad travellers, who did not conform to the manners of the country they were in.

The change from the climate, inhabitants, and customs of the East, to those of the bleak North, was very marked on our arrival at Odessa. We were again surrounded by sheepskins, and pierced with a sharp east wind that howled over the desolate steppes. Here were no lofty peaks to shelter us, nor summer sun to warm us; winter seemed fairly to have set in the day we arrived, with the view of chasing us out of Russia. However, we could not go until we had been advertised a certain number of days in the papers, for the benefit of imaginary creditors. Fortunately we had given notice of our intended departure before we arrived, whereby the length of our stay was considerably diminished. Meantime we found plenty to amuse us in the greatest mercantile emporium in Russia.

It must be admitted that Odessa is very cosmopolitan in its character. Almost every country in Europe has its representative here, and the principal streets are filled with an immense variety of costume. Indeed, Odessa has an air of business and activity about it quite foreign to Russian towns generally; and this is doubtless owing to its rapid growth and mixed population. There is a great deal more liberty enjoyed by the inhabitants than by those of any other town in the empire; and I was struck by the unwonted freedom of smoking and conversation which prevailed among those with whom I mixed. The evident effort made to be as little Russian as possible, is a significant comment upon the inconsistency of the inhabitants, who, while they maintain the superior excellence of everything national, seem chiefly desirous of sinking their nationality, and, with that facility of imitation peculiar to Russian character, seek to assimilate themselves as much as possible to other European nations. It follows, therefore, that, apart from the novelty with which this city is invested by its commercial character, in a country affording no encouragement to trade, there is little to interest in its broad glaring streets, where clouds of white dust overwhelm the passengers, and rows of stumpy trees are reduced almost to the same colour as the tall houses behind them.

Although there is no macadamised road leading in any one direction



FIRST LANDING OF THE ROYAL HORSE ARTILLERY IN THE BOSPHORUS.—(SEE PRECEDING PAGE)



THE BOMBARDMENT OF ODESSA.—(SEE PAGE 527.)

out of Odessa, yet even the magnificent rivers, which afford such evident means of communication with the interior, are not taken advantage of. The Dnieper, the Dniester, and the Bug, are all either navigable or might easily be made so. At present little else but wood-rafts float down their broad waters. No private company has enterprise, or rather paucity enough, to attempt an undertaking which Government might at any moment ruin; and even now, almost all speculations in Russia are carried on by rash foreigners, who have not lived long enough in the country to know better. I think, therefore, it will be some time before a railway is completed to Moscow, though Government now offers a guarantee of four per cent. It will be a singular anomaly if a railway should connect Moscow and Odessa in the absence of any macadamised road between the two, and one none the less striking, because only to be found elsewhere in America.

THE CAUCASUS AND THE SEAT OF WAR IN ASIA.

WITH our impression of this day we present our readers with a Map of the eastern shore of the Black Sea, and of the western coast of the Caspian, including the territory enclosed between those two geographical boundaries. This Map, in conjunction with the one we printed on the 14th of last January, gives a complete view of the Seat of War in the Euxine, the Caucasus, and in Asia; and it is our present purpose to describe, historically and politically, the principal localities in and around which the Allied fleets, the Turkish armies, and the mountaineers of Schamyl, will have to contend against the Russian colossus.

The mountainous range of the Caucasus, forming a natural barrier between Europe and Asia, extends from the Black to the Caspian Sea in a diagonal line: the length from Anapa to Baku being 690 miles; but the average breadth is only thirty leagues, if the inferior Caucasus, or Ararat, is not included. This region is celebrated in the fables and traditions of antiquity, as well as in the annals of authentic history. Here Zoroaster placed the abode of Ahrimanes, and here the vulture gnawed the liver of the enchained Prometheus. Jason and the Argonauts sailed up the river Phasis, now called the Rion, in search of the Arics Chrysorellus, the Ram with the Golden Fleece. Here dwelt the warlike Amazons, and here reigned the Great Mithridates. According to the Sacred Writings, the ark rested on Mount Ararat; and local tradition affirms that the cradle of Christ is deposited on the summit of Mount Kasbek, above the tent of Abraham, which is itself suspended in the air.

Circassia, the northernmost and most extensive division of the Caucasus, is inhabited by a race distinguished by the name of Atteghel, which signifies a people dwelling in a country which lies between two seas. Some antiquarians trace the Atteghel tribes to the Koumanian Tartars, others to a colony of wandering Arabs. It is now ascertained, says Mr. Spencer, that the Polouziens or Koumanians were nothing more than subjects of Circassian Princes, whose names alone have been recorded in history. "Their territory, Kabiri (Kabardah), according to a singularly curious manuscript map found in the Imperial library at Vienna, joined the country of the Koumanians, over whom, in all probability, the Kabardian Princes exercised some sort of nominal sovereignty." A travelling Monk, named Ruysbrok, who journeyed over the vast steppes of Western Tartary, in the thirteenth century, says:—"This whole plain was, previously to the irruption of the Mongol Tartars, inhabited by the Koumanians, who called themselves Kaptchat Tartars, and were descended from a great chief of that name, and traced their origin to Ishmael. The Byzantines always spoke of the people of the Western Caucasus as Zychians, the Greek word for Circassians, and describe their territory as extending from Pitsounda, the ancient Pythus, along the shores of the Euxine to the mouth of the river Kouban, being the precise territory they now occupy, and to which Russia has laid claim by virtue of the treaty of Adrianople.

Various names have been given to the Caucasian mountains by different nations. The Chaldeans called them Taw-An; the Persians, Seddi-Iskerdar, signifying the barrier of Alexander—for, according to Persian tradition, it was here that the great Macedonian received his first check; the Georgians call them Kof-Kaf; the Turks, Kof-Dagh; and the majority of the Circassian tribes, Aour. The highest peak of the Caucasian Alps still retains among them its original name of Aoua-Dagh, which means mountains of snow. The highest summits of the mountain range are the Elberous or Spat, which rises 16,330 feet above the level of the sea, and the Kasbek, also called the Miquivari, whose elevation is 14,400 feet.

Russian Princes expelled the successors of Mithridates from the kingdom of the Bosphorus, and Sviatoslaf founded Tmutarakan, supposed to be the same as the modern Taman, on which the ancient Phanagoria was built. But the Russians were driven out by the Poloutians, to whom we have already referred, about the beginning of the eleventh century; nor did they again appear in the Caucasus till the sixteenth century, when they approached by the Volga. We may date the real and permanent advances of Russia on the Caucasus from the reign of Peter the Great, his conquest of Azof on the Palus Mæotis, and his victories against the Persians on the Caspian, from whom he took Shirvan, Guilan, Mazanderan, Asterabad, Daghestan, and the important city of Derbent; for, although the Empress Anne was compelled to restore these provinces to Nadir-Shah, Russia determined to recover what she had once possessed. Anne, however, founded Kislar on an arm of the Terek, which became the boundary of the Russian possessions in the Caucasus during her reign. Catharine II. annexed the two Katardahs, and there built Mosdok, and the towns of Georgievsk, Staropol, and Ekaterinograd. Heraclius, Czar of Georgia, placed his country under the Protectorate of Paul I.; and in 1802 Alexander declared it a Russian province. Abhasia next passed under Muscovite rule; and Paskiewitch conquered Erivan and Nakhetchivan from the Persians. However, under the native leaders—Kasi-Moullah, Hamsad Bey, and the celebrated Schamyl, Circassia has obstinately resisted, and still resists, the denomination of the Czar, and, with the aid of England and France, will establish its independence.

It is necessary here to recite the fourth article of the treaty of Adrianople (1829), which is thus worded:—

Georgia, Imeritia, Gouriel, and several other provinces of the Caucasus, having been for many years and in perpetuity united to the empire of Russia, and that Empire having besides, by the treaty concluded with Persia at Tourkmanchail, on the 10th February, 1828, acquired the Khanets of Erivan and Nakhetchivan, the two high contracting parties have recognised the necessity of establishing between their respective states, on the whole of that line, a well-determined frontier, capable of preventing all future discussion; they have equally taken into consideration the proper means to oppose insurmountable obstacles to the incursions and depredations which the neighbouring nations or tribes have hitherto committed, and which have so often compromised the relations of friendship and good feeling between the two empires; consequently, it has been agreed upon to consider henceforward as the frontier between the territories of the Imperial Court of Russia and those of the Sublime Porte in Asia, the line which, following the present limit of Gouriel from the Black Sea, ascends as far as the borders of Imeritia; and from thence, in the straightest direction, as far as the point where the frontiers of Akhalzick and of Kars meet those of Georgia, leaving, in this manner, to the north, and within this line, the town of Akhalzick and the port of Khinalik, at a distance of not less than two hours.* All the countries situate to the south and west of this line of demarcation towards the Pashalics of Kars and Trebizond, together with the major part of the Pashalic of Akhalzick, shall remain in perpetuity under the dominion of the Sublime Porte; while those which are situated to the north and east of the said line towards Georgia, Imeritia, and Gouriel, as well as all the littoral of the Black Sea from the mouth of the Kouban, as far as the Port St. Nicolas, inclusively, shall remain under the dominion of the Emperor of Russia.

This littoral of the Black Sea extends about two hundred leagues, and we will now notice some of the principal positions on this line of coast. Anapa, as will be seen by reference to the map, is the first Russian settlement in Circassia, and is situated at the base of a mountain which terminates the lesser chain of the Caucasus, from

whence the vast plains of the river Kouban extend north and east. Anapa formerly belonged to the Circassians, who, in 1784, allowed the Turks to build a fortress upon it. Six years afterwards, having been held by the Turks, it repulsed General Bibikoff. In 1791 General Gondovitch carried it by assault. In 1807 both the town and fortress were captured by a Russian squadron, commanded by Admiral Pastoshekin. Finally, in 1828, after a murderous siege of three months, it surrendered to Prince Menshikoff and Admiral Greig. Soudjouk Kale is thirty miles south-east of Anapa, and the bay affords safe anchorage. Gelendik is sixteen miles distant from Soudjouk Kale. Redout Kale is a bad sea-port, which, prior to Russian occupation in 1827, was the great dépôt for English manufactures on their way to Persia and Georgia; but the English establishments, since 1827, have been transferred to Trebizond. The Russians have attempted to establish a rival port at Poti at the mouth of the Rion.

When the treaty of Adrianople was communicated to the chieftains of the Caucasus, they assembled together and drew up a declaration of their national independence, which they addressed to the Sovereigns of Europe and Asia, but, unfortunately, it received no official attention. This document, deeply interesting, and the more so at the present crisis, is much too long for insertion in our columns; but we shall give its substance, and some of its stirring passages. It commences by denying any subjection to Russia, and affirms that the Sultans of Turkey were no more than their spiritual chiefs; that they had, indeed, frequently deserted and betrayed them, and that their pretension to sign away by treaty any portion of the Caucasus was a usurpation and an insult:—

We know (says the declaration) that Russia is not the only power in the world. We know that there are other powers greater than Russia, who are not friends to the Russians, but rather their enemies, and who are not enemies of the Sultan, but his friends. We know that England and France are the first among the nations of the earth, and were great and powerful when the Russians came in little boats, and got from us permission to catch fish in the Sea of Azof. We thought that England and France would take no interest in a simple and poor people like us, but we did not doubt that such wise nations knew that we were not Russians; and though we know little, and have no artillery, generals, discipline, ships, or riches, that we are an honest people, and peaceable when let alone, but that we hate the Russians with good cause, and almost always beat them. It is, therefore, with the profoundest humiliation that we have learned that our country is marked on all the maps printed in Europe as a portion of Russia—that treaties of which we know nothing should have been signed between Turkey and Russia, pretending to hand over to the Russians those warriors that make Russia tremble, and these mountains where her footsteps have never come—that Russia tells in the west that the Circassians are her slaves, or wild bandits, or savages, whom no kindness can soften and no laws restrain. We solemnly protest, in the face of Heaven, against such womanish arts and falsehood. We answer words with deeds, but it is truth against falsehood. For forty years we have protested triumphantly against accusations with our arms. This ink, as well as the blood we have shed, declares our independence; and these are the seals of men who have known no superior, save the decision of their country—men who understand no subtle arguments, but who know how to use their weapons whenever the Russians come within their reach.

The document then appeals to England for protection, expressing a hope that she will not "open her ear to the wiles of the Russian, while she closes it to the prayers of the Circassian." It explains the political and social condition of the country, and dwells upon the disadvantage of not possessing a common chief having central authority over all the tribes, their disunion being the source of weakness. It then refers to the cruelty and perfidy of Russia, its merciless firing of whole villages, its stealing of children, the calumnies it circulates against the honour of the Circassians, and the mean arts by which it purchases the secret services of the treacherous agents of the Porte. It declares that thousands of Russian prisoners in the Caucasus prefer the barbarism of the mountains to the civilisation of their own country; and concludes with the following paragraph:—

It is by arms, not by words, that a country can be conquered. If Russia conquers us, it will not be by arms, but by cutting off our communications, and making use of Turkey and Persia as if they were already hers; by rendering the sea impassable, as if it were her own; by blockading our coast; by destroying not only our vessels, but those of other States which approach us; by depriving us of a market for our produce; by preventing us from obtaining salt, gunpowder, and other necessities of war; by depriving us of hope. But we are independent—we are at war—we are victors. The representative of the Emperor who numbers us in Europe as his slaves, who marks this country as his on the map, has lately opened communications with the Circassians; not to offer pardon for rebellion, but to bargain for the retreat of 20,000 men enveloped by our people, and to make arrangements for exchange of prisoners.

This appeal being utterly disregarded by the statesmen of Europe, the Emperor Nicholas determined to bid defiance to England; and, under the pretext of having blockaded the littoral of the Black Sea, claimed by him under the treaty of Adrianople, seized the merchant ship *Vixen*, laden with salt and bound for Circassia, and confiscated it on the 25th of November, 1836. We have already shown that Turkey had no legal power to surrender a line of coast which she never possessed: moreover, there was no *de facto* possession by Russia—no less than thirty-six British subjects having offered testimony or made affidavit to the contrary. The Russians did, indeed, take possession of the eastern side of the Bay of Soudjouk Kale, where the *Vixen* was captured—the entire bay being nearly eight miles in circumference—and commenced throwing up intrenchments, and erecting huts and palisades for the use and protection of the military, on the bank of a small river called the Doba; but Mr. Spencer, who visited the country in September, 1836, declares that the natives had expelled the Russians and destroyed their intrenchments at that date; while the crew of the *Vixen* also deposed that they found the bay completely deserted by the Russians, there being neither a civil or military functionary belonging to that people nearer than the forts of Anapa and Gelendik. But on this subject a very curious fact remains to be related, showing the falsehood of the Russian Government, and the credulity of our own. Lord Durham, then our Ambassador at the Court of St. Petersburg, addressed a letter to Lord Palmerston, then Secretary for Foreign Affairs, dated the 13th of May, 1837. It runs thus:—"With respect to the military *de facto* occupation of Soudjouk Kale, I have to state to your Lordship that there is a fortress in the bay which bears the name of the Empress Alexandrine, and that it has always been occupied by a Russian garrison." Always is a vague term: was that the case before or after the treaty of Adrianople? But what is the fact? The fortress which bears the name of the Empress Alexandrine is situated on the Caspian, which Lord Durham confounded with the Black Sea; and it is a well-known fact that no fortress whatever existed at Soudjouk Kale since the Circassians expelled the Turks, in 1816, from that place, and razed the buildings to the ground, till the capture of the *Vixen*.

Referring again to the map, we observe that the river Kouban separates the Western Caucasus from the country of the Cossacks of the Black Sea. From the mouth of that river, which enters the Euxine close to Taman, by one of its branches, while two other branches empty themselves into the Sea of Azof, to the mouth of the river Terek, which falls, near Kislar, into the Caspian, there is a continuous line of Russian forts, among the principal of which are Ekaterinodar and Stavropol, which last was raised to the rank of a town in 1785. Along the eastern flank of this range runs another chain of forts connecting the northern line with the Terek—among the strongest of which are Alexandrusk and Georgievsk. Mosdok is the central point, and Kislar the extremity, on the islands of the Terek, where that river reaches the Caspian. Another line of forts along the Caspian runs from Kislar to Baku, passing through Derbent. The Pass of Derbent was called by the ancients the Pylæ Albanæ and the Via Caspia. It bears also the name of the Demir Capu, or Iron gates. A military road runs from Mosdok

* An hour is equivalent to three miles.

to Tiflis, through the famous Pass of Dariel, which is the key of the Eastern Caucasus. It was frequently attacked by the Persians, but without success; and it became a proverb in Persia, "When a King is too happy, let him attack Caucasus." Nadir Shah attacked the pass in 1741 with 40,000 troops; but that famous conqueror was defeated by the Lezghians. It was at that date the Lezghians placed themselves under the supremacy of Russia, as a protection against the Persians. In this pass stands the fortress of Vladikaukas, otherwise spelt Vladikavkaz. Its name is a compound word, derived from the Russian verb, Vladet, to govern or command; and Kavkaz the Russian name for the Caucasus. It is supposed to be the key of the Pylæ Sarmaticæ, the Porta Caucasica, or Porta Iberica of the ancients, through which the Medes, or rather their descendants, the Sarmatians, and other nations, passed into the plains of the north, and gave origin to a variety of peoples. This pass is now known as the Defile of the Terek. To the westward of the road of the Vladikaukas is the country of the Osetinians, who have submitted to the Russians. On the eastern side of the Isthmus lies Daghestan, between the high ridge of mountains and the Caspian; and the district westward of Daghestan is inhabited by the Lezghians, their territory extending far into the mountains. The Abhasians principally dwell on the western side of the Caucasian hills, or that side of the chain which faces the Black Sea.

The defence of the line of the Kouban river is entrusted to the Tchernomorskii Cossacks, otherwise called the Cossacks of the Black Sea. These are the descendants of Zaporoghian Cossacks, so called from *za*, beyond, and *poroghe*, a cataract, because they formerly dwelt beyond the cataracts of the Dnieper. In 1775 Catharine II., alleging that they were guilty of high treason, banished them to the district of Bielgerod. In 1787 they were pardoned, and formed into regiments by Prince Potemkin, and by him called the "Faithful Cossacks of the Black Sea," in the hope they would prove so in future. They rendered signal service in the Turkish wars; and, when peace was established, the Empress gave them the country conquered from the Kouban Tartars. Thither they were transplanted in 1792, and charged with the defence of their territory, which stretches on the south from the mouth of the river Laba to the *embouchure* of the Kouban in the Black Sea. Towards the north and east it is limited by the river Yea, which separates it from the government of Ekaterinoslaf and the country of the Cossacks of the Don. On the west it is bounded by the Black Sea, the Sea of Azof, and the Strait of Enikale, or Strait of Kertch, anciently called the Cimærian Bosphorus, and marked on our map. Kertch is the ancient Panticopeum, the capital of Mithridates. The country of these Cossacks contains one thousand square miles, and their military duty terminates at Redustkol-Karantlin, where the defence of the Caucasian line is taken up by the Grebenski Cossacks, who descend from the Cossacks of the Don, and at an early period domiciliated themselves on the banks of the Terek. In one of the campaigns of the Czar Ivan I. against the Tartars of the Caucasus, a body of these Cossacks formed the advanced line of the army, and scaled a mountain which resembled a comb, on account of sharp small spurs which sloped down from its summit and projected horizontally. In the Russian language, Greben signifies a comb, and to commemorate this gallant exploit the Czar bestowed on these Cossacks the title and name of Grebenski, which they have ever since borne.

By the various lines of forts and other military defences referred to, the Western Caucasus is completely girdled round by the Russians, and while their vessels commanded the Black Sea they shut out from the mountaineers both powder and salt, to them invaluable. In spite of these disadvantages, native independence has been preserved, nor have the Russians achieved more than commanding the sea-shore by forts. In the interior of the Western Caucasus they have made no progress. In Daghestan they only rule by military power, and an annual sacrifice of the lives of 20,000 soldiers. Mansur Bey, Khasi Moullah, and Schamyl (who is a Lezghian by birth, born in 1797) have in succession defied the armies of the Czar; and now that the last-named hero is to receive the support of France and England, we confidently expect that all the tribes will rally under his banner, expel their envenomed enemy from their heroic land, march into the Crimea, and, attaching Sebastopol on the land side while it is bombarded by the fleets, capture that fortress, and annihilate Russian supremacy in the Black Sea.

Again referring the reader to the map, and directing his attention to the Caspian and the south-western divisions, we must allude to the encroachments of Russia on what used to be Persian territory. By the treaty of Goolistan, in Karabaugh, concluded between Persia and Russia in 1814, the former engaged not to maintain ships of war on the Caspian, and ceded to the Czar all her acquisitions south of the Caucasus, nominatively Georgia, Imeritia, Mingrelia, Derbend, Bakou, and all Persian Daghestan, Shirvan, Shekkee, Ganja, Karabaugh, and parts of Moghan and Talish. In 1828, by the treaty of Turcomanchail, Russia still further acquired territory, for Persia was compelled to cede the opulent provinces of Erivan and Nukhehivan, including the fortresses of Erivan and Abassabad—this last place establishing the Russians on the Araxes or Arras. But Russia obtained more, for she retained Talish and Moghan, thus securing a footing beyond the Arras, from which she menaces the most valuable parts of Persia. The author of "Progress and Present Position of Russia in the East" (generally supposed to be our former Minister at the Court of Teheran, Sir John MacNeill) has observed, on these transactions:—

Russia thus occupies positions beyond the Araxes, in Persia, and beyond the Danube, in Turkey; has claims for indemnities on both; has the exclusive possession of the Caspian, and the command of the Black Sea—controls the mouths of the Kur, on the one, and of the Danube on the other; and desires to be the protector of the Sultan, and to guarantee the throne to the heir of the shah, for the obvious or avowed purpose of subjugating both empires. While the position occupied by Russia in European Turkey menaces Constantinople and the Dardanelles, the attitude she has assumed in Asiatic Turkey menaces Armenia. She has acquired possession of the mountain passes that separate that province from Georgia, and of the fortresses that defended the Turkish frontier. By every movement she threatens to interrupt the only line of communication by which British manufactures, to the value of one million and a half sterling, are yearly carried through Turkey into Persia. She has already advanced to within nine miles of this road, and to about ninety from Trebizond, the port from which it leads. The course which she would pursue, were either under her control, may be inferred from her commercial system generally, from the fact that she is our rival in the market of Persia, and that she has put a stop to the transit trade through Georgia, because it interfered with her exclusive commerce on the Caspian. Yet the Persian trade is but a small portion of what would be lost to England were Russia in possession of the Dardanelles.

Territorial absorption is the notorious policy of the Czars; but when their empire is termed a colossus, however grandiose the term, it is vague. Let us then be definite. The acquisitions of Russia from Sweden are greater than what remains of that kingdom. The acquisitions from Poland are nearly equal to the Austrian Empire. Her acquisitions from Turkey, in Europe, are of greater extent than the Prussian dominions, exclusive of the Rhenish provinces. Her acquisitions from Turkey, in Asia, are nearly equal in dimensions to the whole of the smaller States of Germany. Her acquisitions from Persia are equal in extent to England. Her acquisitions in Tartary are not less in area than Turkey in Europe, Greece, Italy, and Spain. The acquisitions she has made within the last sixty-four years are equal in extent and importance to the whole Empire she had in Europe before that time. These encroachments are the condemnation of the past policy of the Statesmen of Western Europe. When the partition of Poland was effected, Louis XV. exclaimed, "Could I have foreseen what has happened, I would have sold my last carriage to prevent it." Let us hope that atonement will now be made for past errors; that Finland will be restored to Sweden, the Crimea to Turkey, the Caucasus rendered independent, and Persia be reinstated in her ancient territory. The motive to the present war, and its justification, is the maintenance of the balance of power, for which the sole guarantee in the future is the re-construction of the political map of Europe and Asia.

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bowed under the sceptre of a stranger. Great disasters have befallen them. More than 300 years before Christ, the Macedonian arms had, for instance, swept like a storm over a part of their country; but even this yoke they escaped, because, as Pliny rather archly says, Alexander "was obliged to leave Hyrcania in haste." Much later, but still sixty or seventy years before the Christian era, they sustained another memorable overthrow, having sent all their available forces to help Mithridates against the Romans. The carnage which they suffered at the hands of Pompey is one of the most terrible and complete on record. When, however, their condition might be deemed most remarkable was during the short universal Asiatic rule of Tamerlane. We need not remind our readers in what concerns Russia, although the odds are so enormously against a handful of mountaineers, and in favour of the discipline, the numbers, and the resources of an immense military empire, that, despite the pertinacity of the efforts expended, the Caucasian tribes are still at a great distance from being reduced

to the condition of the Poles. They are still living under their own chiefs, with their own customs and with their own laws. It is not, therefore, merely because this race trace back so far their national history that they interest us; but because they are the only people on the face of the globe who can trace back so far an independent national history. Few in number, yet their region is so important, and their character is so striking, that they are well known to the ancients; and abundant mention of them, under their old name, occurs in Herodotus, in Verrius Flaccus, in Pomponius Mela, in Strabo, in Plutarch, and in other great writers. In fine, their annals are the brave record of a liberty maintained for at least 2300 years, often in the face of the mightiest potentates in human remembrance, and now to be readily surrendered to an arrogant Russian tyrant. But, without the excitement of these noble recollections, were the Caucasian tribes as new as the New Zealanders, they would deserve great attention. Our Engraving speaks for itself. They are mani-



A CIRCASSIAN FAMILY.

fastly the true aristocrats of nature. The erect figure, the thoughtful brow, the regular, earnest, firm, and noble countenance, the martial port, the free and muscular limbs, the well-opened chest, the breadth of the shoulders, the straightness of the back, the sculpture-like setting of the head upon the fine throat, all evidently betoken one of the most thoroughbred of the human families or septa. A first glance at the costume of the men conveys we know not what of some vague recollection of the Crusaders. And, indeed, the chain-mail enforces or heightens that whimsical middle-age resemblance. There is a strange union of ancient and of modern weapons and arms. The Circassians have adopted pistol and gun, without relinquishing the spear and the bow and arrow; and they do execution with both. In truth, nothing but an easy and abundant supply of percussion fire-arms would make it worth while to abandon altogether in that region the cheap and formidable instruments of the javelin-man and the archer. The Russians, when they subdued the Don Cossacks and the Astraks, and had begun to push aggression into the Caucasus, captured and cajoled a sufficient number of the real Georgians, to form a regiment with the addition of some of the contemnerous tribes. Of course, the costume of these was modelled on the true type; and the corps in question forms one of the most striking and wildly picturesque features in the annual reviews of May at St. Petersburg. They carry the bow on horseback; and the quiver is supposed to be furnished in that apparatus on the breast, which the rider will perceive in our Engraving. Either eight very short arrows, or a row of cartridges, could be towed thus.

Although the country is so mountainous (one of the peaks of the Caucasus being much higher than Mont Blanc—eaching, in fact, to an altitude of 16,700 feet above the sea), yet there is an admirable breed of horses; and the Circassians are first-rate riders. Nevertheless, it is not as cavalry that the inhabitants are principally formidable to an invader, but as guerilla-highlanders, whose superior the world never saw—not even in Switzerland or in Scotland, in the fastnesses of the Tyrol, or in the Serras of Spain.

Of the female type among the Circassians our Engravings furnish two or three specimens. The beauty of these women is, of course, well known;—their too common destination is not worthy of this gallant and superior people. We have little to add respecting the accessories of the two scenes we have delineated. The sheepskin, here, as in so many other regions of Asia and of Eastern Europe, is an essential part of the male costume. In fine weather the wool is worn outwards—in wet and cold, the skin.

Within doors we see a household in a moment of ease and peace. Two men—a chief and an attendant—are about to depart, not necessarily for the chase, for a Circassian never stirs abroad without his arms. The child lets his mother know that he would like to accompany his father. Others are regaling themselves. What the smoker has on the stool before him is coffee, the strongest stimulant that is popular (for opium is the drug of a lost class) in the temperate East. The wooden cup on the floor contains water; and there is a wooden cup at hand.

The ancient names of the Circassian tribes were innumerable; but by far the most prominent classes in that region were the Iberians (the real and proper Iberians; not the Spaniards, a distant "Iberian" from the name *Ibros*), and the Albanians—these are so the real and primitive Albanians. The former occupied the south-west part of the country, between the Black Sea and the Caspian; and the latter the eastern part, which is now Daghestan, with Derbent for its capital. The Russians, we need not say, have forced their passage right through both the "Caucasian gates" and the "Albanian gates" (*Albanie portes*), and have marched as conquerors, long since, to Iffis, and further still, to the lake and city of Erivan, in the Persian province of Azerbajan. And the present Viceroy and Governor-General of Poland, Prince Paskévitch, who commanded the latter expedition, derives his proudest title from that ancient Persian place. He is Prince of Erivan, "Erivanski." But, with regard to the intermediate region, Schamyl, not Nicholas, is still the veritable master. Russian campaigns in the Caucasus are "sword-thrusts in the water." And the present rupture of Russia with Turkey, and with Europe, will be of immense importance to the brave Circassians, who are now furnished with proper supplies. The Tartar barbarian has been able to go to Colchis; but he will not be able to stay there. His communications with the distant base of operations are destroyed effectively—destroyed, we trust, for ever.

LITERARY MISCELLANIES.—No. XIII.

A PLEA FOR THE DONKEY.

Most people have more or less contempt for Donkeys. "He's a mere Donkey!" is a common phrase; "An Ass of a fellow!" is another; "That chap ought to wear Donkey's ears!" is a third. I intend to put the ladies and gentlemen who use these phrases a little through their facings, and prove that there is neither rhyme nor reason in using the term *assine* as identical with stupidity. Most of these people, indeed, have never given any heed to the matter, but fixed their admiration on horses;—"prancing steeds—dear, beautiful, sleek creatures, tossing up their noble heads, and flying like the wind. Talk to us of Donkeys—poor, pitiful, ugly, miserable, little drudges—half starved—only owned by blackguards of cosermongers, and as stupid as stupid can be."

Stop a little, and let us consider. The Donkey, it is admitted, is not so big as the horse; but the horse is not so big as the camel. Is the horse the worse for that? You answer, no. Well, is the Donkey the worse of the horse for being smaller? You must equally say no. Next, as to intelligence—which is most intelligent, the sharp-eyed terrier or the heavy and fierce bulldog. Judge an animal by his intelligence and his capability for doing the work for which he is adapted, and you have the best test.

Now, let us try the horse and the Donkey by it. The Donkey is stronger in proportion than the horse; he can carry a greater load—he has more endurance—he can go a longer journey without giving in, than the horse—he can get on upon coarser food and a harder bed than the horse. It is calculated that if a man and a horse start on a journey together—each to go at his natural pace—the man will pass the horse on the third or fourth day, according to the vigour and endurance of either. Now, put a man on the horse and a boy on the Donkey—and my life for yours, the same will be the result. The horse, after two days' travel, must have a day's rest. This is not necessary with the Donkey; he is more enduring; he has his night's sleep, and he goes on fresh for the third day, leaving his friend, the equine animal, being carefully groomed in the stable.

The finest horses tire themselves the soonest. The high pacing couriers, who almost strike their noses with their knees, are the soonest the fonder for the ground, while nobody ever saw the Donkey attempt to damage his nasal organ with his knees. On the contrary, he starts off in a smart, neat, compact little trot, and can amble and even gallop if he pleases. The trot, however, is the Donkey's most enduring pace; on he goes, pit-a-pat, pit-a-pat—a little in-kneed in some specimens, but not worse trotters for that. Besides, the Donkey is a healthier and a harder creature than the horse. I never heard of a Donkey having a cold in his head; but I have known horses with distressing coughs. I have seen horses dressed from head to foot in sanitary trappings, with their eyes looking out of holes like hot goblins; but I never saw a Donkey wearing any apparel but his pannels. Another advantage of a Donkey is his patience—his patience of the load and of the blow. Lash a spirited horse, and he rears, snorts, perhaps attempts to bite the leg, or flung himself back on his tormentor, while he gains nothing by his turbulence save more flogging, or a gallop till he is utterly worn out, and ultimate submittance. Now the Donkey, when ill-treated, does not increase his punishment by needless resistance. He hangs down his head, and reasoning with himself, that his owner is his master, in the sense of dominion, comes off better than the horse. But the one is high spirited, it will be said, and the other is low. No, it may be answered, the first is foolish, and the second is wise. The one gets more stripes than the other, and the end, in both cases, is the same.

Now is a Donkey uglier than a horse? No; I insist that he is the more picturesque creature of the two. He is rugged in his coat, his mane hangs disorderly on his neck—so much the better. He is more in the state of nature. The pampered horse looks as if his coat had been rubbed with pomatum, and his mane operated upon by a *perruquier*. Which is the more picturesque; and, as picturesque—the more agreeable to look at? As a proof of this, it is a remarkable fact that all picturesque and nomadic races have employed Donkeys in preference to horses—and that from the first existence of mammalia upon earth. The Zingares of Spain use Asses; the Mu'teers do not, but they are not nomadic; they are trading, and sleep in posadas, while the gipsies of the land encamp in tents—a picturesque race, and their Donkeys as picturesque and as rough as themselves; for though, as we have said, the horse may be more stately and graceful—the mule more elegant in his trained amble—the Donkey, with its slim legs and neat compact trot, and its rough pile, is more picturesque than either of the other two. In regard to the western gipsies, I fear me that they are, in some degree, degenerating down into using horses; but the true scions of the Spanish and Bohemian gipsies will stick to the asses.

The Donkey is, indeed, essentially of the country. What is more beautiful than to see the traveling merchant, who supplies the petty hamlet and the labourer's hut with commodities from the town, camped in a grassy nook of a green English lane—the hawthorn edges towered over on either side by the lofty elms; the cart with its store of varied goods and chattels piled up in its broad shallow tray, and hanging from all convenient points of the vehicle; the one train, with its rope and leather traces on the ground; and the proprietor—a swarthy fellow, in a velvet shooting-coat, a long waistcoat, and a broad straw hat—is arranging his wares, and his two plump Donkeys are feeding out of bags along round their necks beside him. Many a picture has been executed of such a scene—or of the gipsy encampments—with their fires, and their pots, and their tents, and the Donkeys teaching the horses, but in vain, by their example, to herd in companies. The former, indeed, are fond of laying their heads together; although what the subjects which these scenes discuss has not, as yet, been discovered by any philosopher—while the horses never give them an opportunity. Indeed, in point of phrenologic development, the Donkey—always admitting the difference of size—is superior to the horse; the foreheads of both being about equal in breadth—but the horse, possessing a hollow behind above the eye, which detracts from the actual breadth of their brows. Besides, it is known that when a Donkey is associated with horses, he invariably takes the lead, and conducts the bigger animals from the stable to the pastures and from the pastures to the stable.

Though no doubt capable of struggling on through hard work, performed amid the toil and moil of clashing vans and heavy horses, toiling under coal-sacks, or even the degradation of root sacks, yet I love to see the Donkey in its more primeval, or even suburban, aspects, where it carries young masters and misses along both the dusty roads and the lushy heaths, as the will and taste of the hirer may dictate. But be merciful, Master Smith, and be gentle, Miss Smith, and guide the hoofs which bear you to the pleasant treading on the heath amid the bushes, and beneath the shade of the varied trees. I saw a Donkey the other day upon the street—instead of banging down its head it held it aloft, and on its forehead was a brass star. Its mane was smoother than the average, indicating the oft-applied comb; its coat, in its regularity of lay, announced a similar process; besides, its sides were plump—not a rib was to be seen; its harness was ornamented by brass ornaments, brightly scoured; its conductress was a maiden of tidy appearance, and the cargo of its cart was flowers. But that was an exceptional Donkey—exceptionally favoured. The general toil of the Donkey, when we find it in the country, is, as we have already sketched it, conveying the goods of rural traffickers, or accompanying the gang of gipsies. Sometimes the farmer presses it into his market service; and, driven by his portly lady, Dapple trots briskly along with a lading of vegetables, lots of dairy produce, poultry, and eggs. In watering-places, whether sea-side or mineral, Donkeys abound, and are in their element. In the former you see them trotting under the white cliff, leaving the imprint of their small hoofs on the firm sand, bearing children rosy with sea-breeze, and braced with salt-water, under the guardianship of sea-side costumed parents—one arrayed in a light shooting-coat, broad straw-hat, flowing white trousers, yellow slippers, and a telescope slung in a case round his shoulder; the other, in a little straw *chapeau*, and a general marine *negligée*—suited for sand, shingle, and clambering amid the rocks. At mineral spas Donkeys may be frequently seen waiting for hire round the pump-room, and performing their usual functions, as the animated conveyances, mostly of children, but occasionally of a party of sporting young ladies; or drawing peacefully along some yellow-faced old nabob, who prefers the easy pace of the Donkey, with a walking attendant, to the more restive paces of a frisky pony, which would too rudely shake up his bilious old corporation.

Occasionally you find the Donkey attached—as a sort of appanage—to the general establishment of the horses of a great house. Sir Walter Scott, in his *Diary*, narrates that at Abbotsford—if we mistake not—they had two female asses, for the double purpose of giving milk to the family, and pulling the vehicle in which Lady Scott and the young ladies took the drives round the grounds. These animals—which were "wickedly" as Scott says, nick-named by the girls, "Hannah Moore" and "Lady Morgan"—were kept in a paddock, and even if they were at its furthest end from the house, when Sir Walter, or indeed any member of the family with whom they were familiar—appeared, both Donkeys, sending forth joyful neighs, galloped up and laid their muzzles upon the pales, rubbing their rough heads against the kindly hands presented to them.

Supplying families with milk leads us to a slight sketch of another subject of a more melancholy cast. Has the reader ever seen a sleek female Donkey being conducted to the stately portals of a great house? and has he marked her being milked there, and noticed at a drawing-room window—watching the process—the slender form of a young girl, with hectic cheeks and gleaming eyes, and a deadly pale forehead, evidently, from the motion of her lips and her chest, the prey to that fearful plague—consumption? Presently, the Donkey's reeking milk is carried into the mansion, and the young patient disappears from the window. She takes the milk as a medicine; the Donkey is her unconscious doctor. Now, is the milk of any other animal used in the same way? No doubt, to the tribes of the Calmucks and the Soythians, mare's milk is a copious article of diet. But it is only the lacteal fluid of the ass that has obtained the celebrity of being, if not a curative, at least a palliative, of the wearing cough before which fade so many of the fairest of our younger population. What result naturally follows? Why, that there is some more subtle and curative influence in the milk of the female Ass than in that of any other known animal.

There are a number of other particulars which we could mention about the Ass—the Biblical reputation which it possesses, and to which tradition assigns the dark stripe down its back; but, turning to more mundane topics, we may refer for a moment to the immortal Dapple, and admire how Dapple always kept out of the scrape when Ro-inante's chucers were basted; and how, while the tail of the wind-mill were rolling Ro-inante over and over, Dapple was quietly cropping the tithes of Le Mancha. Who, again, does not lament that in the wilds of the Sierra Morena, when Sancho had gone peaceably to bed

on the back of Dapple, the rascally Gines de Passamante chances to come by, and cunningly abstracts the most immortal of all Asses from under its master's seat, leaving him upon the tressels of his dearly-beloved, supported by four rascally sticks. True, amends are made; and who does not rejoice when Sancho, trudging along in the train of the Princess Micomicona, and in the midst of a goodly company, suddenly espies no less a personage than the redoubted Gines de Passamante, mounted upon the still more redoubted Dapple, who, perceiving the rightful owner supported by such a formidable party, leaps off the back of the outraged Dapple, and scours off with all the speed the greatest scoundrel in Spain could muster, while Sancho and Dapple shed mutual tears of joy upon each other.

A. B. R.

PAUVRE PETITE CATARINA,

THE LITTLE WANDERING SINGER.

BY GRACE GREENWOOD.

By thine eyes, where sorrow striveth
With the sunshine of the South;
By the heart's ungathered sweetness,
Reddening round thy tender mouth;

By thy slight form's mournful drooping;
By its soft, unconscious grace;
By the vague, unchildish trouble
Shadowing o'er thy morning face,—

Do we read a want unanswered,
Asking, searching everywhere—
All a hungered heart's wild yearning
For the mother-love and care.

Days there were thy baby beauty
Knew no dreamy grief-ecclipse;
When Joy fondled thee—Love only
Kissed his impress on thy lips.

But vain seeking, weary waiting,
Sober all that beauty now;
And untempered suns have dusky
Golden'd o'er fair cheek and brow.

Riseth to thy lonely dreaming,
O'er a weary homeless waste,
Vision of some lordly castle,
Or gay palace, titily graced?

Light and glow and pictured splendors—
Forms of knight and noble maid,
Dancing o'er the shining marbles,
Sitting in the jasmin shade?

Golden fruitage of the orange,
Orbed sunshine—luscious bloom
Of the crimson-cleft pomegranate—
Rose-illumined cypress-gloom?

Quivering flash of gorgeous plumage—
Wave of flags where waters run—
Silver gleam of plashing fountains,
Making rainbows in the sun?

Singles out thy heart some figure,
Peerless in its gentle grace?
For one instant shines before thee,
Clear and sweet, the mother-face?

Is the father-love upon thee?
Does he rock thee on his breast,
Smoothing down thy baby-ringlets,
Hushing every sigh to rest?

No! that vague and wistful sadness,
Yearning from thy patient eyes,
Tells of blanks in memory's tablets,
Tells of baffling mysteries.

Dreams thou'st called those loving faces,
Scarcely questioning whence they came;
Faint and far the old home voices—
Half forgot the baby-name.

In thy ways, poor wandering singer,
Thou may'st e'en have paused and sung
At the home-door, while unto thee
Kindred hands have careless flung.

Only silver for thy singing—
Yet some mournful strain, perchance,
May have reached thy lady-mother,
And pierced her heart amid the dance.

Gone, the changing scenes of fancy;
And again my glances fall
Only on a simple picture
Hung against my chamber wall.

'Tis a young Italian singer,
Leaning on her tambourine;
Musing in the purple twilight,
With a sad unchildlike mien.

"*Pauvre petite Catarina!*"
Says the painter—and no more;
But my heart dreamed out her story,
And still loves to con it o'er.

Often do I vainly question—
Have her tired feet ceased to roam?
Hath her sweet voice lost its sadness—
Singing in her new-found home?

Can she on her mother's bosom,
Love's divinest birth-right claim?
Learns she in beloved voices
Once again the baby-name?

Is her heart-thirst quenched in kisses?
Hath her little sun-burnt face
Caught from joy and sweet contentment
Yet a rarer, dearer grace?

Thus before thy gift, beloved,
Fancies wild and yearning wake
In my heart; but most I love it,
I confess, for thy dear sake.

Philadelphia, U. S., February 3, 1854.

Such, however, is not the case as regards volunteers for the line in the northern counties of England.



PRIVATE.

PRIVATE.

GUNNER AND DRIVER, FIELD BATTERY.

OFFICER, — UNIFORM.

OFFICER, — FULL DRESS.

GUNNER AND DRIVER, FIELD BATTERY.

OFFICER, FIELD BATTERY.

THE ROYAL REGIMENT OF ARTILLERY.

LITERATURE.

HISTORY OF THE FRENCH PROTESTANT REFUGEES, FROM THE REVOCATION OF THE EDICT OF NANTES TO THE PRESENT TIME. By CHARLES WEISS, Professor of History at the Lycée Bonaparte. Translated, with the assistance of the Author, by Frederick Hardman. Blackwood and Sons.

The doctrines of the Reformation were introduced into France at the commencement of the sixteenth century, during the reign of Francis I. In 1519, two years after Luther had openly denied the infallibility of the Church of Rome, the Faculty of Theology of Paris denounced the new opinions; and, in 1521, the Sorbonne published their famous condemnation of the Lutheran heresy. John Calvin, the great apostle of the French Reformers, a native of Noyon, in Picardy, where he was born on the 10th July, 1509, acquired a wonderful popularity after the publication of his "Christian Institutions," which, in 1536 he boldly dedicated to Francis I. This work became a standard of faith and discipline, and gave fixedness and unity to the preachers of the Reformed doctrine. The Faculty of Theology at Paris drew up an answer to that book, in which they minutely detailed the Catholic systems of Orthodoxy, and the two parties joined issue on their respective documents: Calvin triumphed; and Francis, urged by the prelates, gave permission, in 1545, to exterminate the heretics by the sword. Dating from the Conspiracy of Amboise, in 1560 to the Peace of Vervins, signed on the 2nd May, 1598, the religious wars of France had continued during thirty-eight years, spreading ruin through the country, spilling its best blood, and vitiating the moral character of its people. This is the grand epoch of the Guises and the Châtillons, the leaders of the respective parties; of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and of the celebrated Henry IV. At the termination of these wars, the famous Edict of Nantes was promulgated, which has certainly received more laudation than it deserved, for it was rather an Act of Toleration than a Charter of Liberty. Amiable, frank, and chivalrous Henry IV. was deficient in firmness and sincerity, and it is not ungenerous to suspect that his religious opinions had but a feeble hold on his heart, when he jocosely said to his more intimate friends, before his real or pretended conversion, "Paris is well worth a mass." That he was despotic may be inferred from the fact that he opposed the decrees of Parliament by the arbitrary ordinances of beds of justice. How indeed, can we admire a Prince who ostentatiously boasted that he wished every peasant had a fowl daily for dinner, and yet signed the atrocious law which condemned a peasant to the whip and the galleys for killing or maiming a rabbit! It has been urged in his defence that in framing the Edict of Nantes he gave to the Calvinists all the religious liberty he was able to concede; but this posthumous justification is not admitted by his contemporaries.

The volume before us, as the title imports, narrates the history of the French Protestant Refugees who sought new homes in foreign countries, after Louis XIV. had revoked the Edict of Nantes; but three introductory chapters precede the main subject, and to these we will first turn our attention. Louis XIII. and Louis XIV. himself solemnly confirmed the Edict. During the minority of the former, "the Regent, Mary of Medicis, declared, in the name of the King, that he recognised that the observance of this edict had established an assured repose amongst his subjects." For which reason, they make the King say, "and notwithstanding that this edict is perpetual and irrevocable, and consequently needs not be confirmed by a new declaration, nevertheless, in order that our above-named subjects may be assured of our good will, we make known, pronounce, and order that the said Edict of Nantes, in all its points and articles, shall be inviolably kept and observed." Louis XIII. confirmed this declaration when he had attained to his majority. When it was shortly afterwards proposed to the States General, in the Chamber of the Nobles, that the King, in the terms of his coronation oath, should expel from his dominions all heretics denounced by the Church, Louis XIII., on the 12th March, 1616, made a declaration, which, says M. Weiss, "is one of the finest monuments of that Prince's justice." It was in the following terms, "After protesting his intention of preserving the edict inviolate, he added, 'that he experienced very great displeasure at the contention that had arisen amongst the Catholic deputies of the Chamber of Nobles; that all the deputies had declared to him separately, and afterwards conjointly, that they desired the observance of the peace established by the edict.' But what was most remarkable in this act of Louis XIII. was, that he condemned all violence in religious matters, 'being persuaded,' he said, 'by experience of the past, that such means had served but to augment the number of those who had quitted the Church, instead of turning them into the path that would have led them back to it.'"

Louis XIV., during the first years of his reign, was friendly to the Protestants, and Madame de Maintenon, in early life, had been a Calvinist. M. Weiss quotes one of her letters, addressed to her brother in 1672, which speaks the King's sentiments, in which she reproaches him for mistreating the Huguenots. Our space will not allow us to extract the whole, which we regret, for as our author justly observes, "it is a precious memorial of Louis XIV.'s true sentiments at that period." She tells her brother to have compassion on people who are "more unfortunate than guilty," and reminds him "that Henry IV., and many great Princes have professed the same religion." The letter concludes with these words:—"One should seek to convert men by gentleness and charity. Jesus Christ has set us the example, and such is the King's intention. It is your duty to enforce the obedience of all. It is that of the bishops and priests to effect conversions by doctrine and example. Neither God nor the King have intrusted to you the cure of souls. Sanctify your own, and be severe for yourself alone." M. Weiss has also preserved a letter from Louis XIV. to his son, written in 1670, in which he explains the principles that directed him in this conduct to the Protestants; but, unhappily for himself, his country, and humanity, he abandoned all his noble and enlightened views as he advanced in years.

In the third chapter of this volume are narrated various acts indicating a change in the opinions of the King, and, as one of their consequences, the more emboldened persecutions by the priests. They began to force themselves into the bed-rooms of dying Protestants, accompanied by the magistrates, to exhort to conversion. They interfered openly in the exercise of the religion of the Protestants, assailing them claiming the education of their children, and the right of regulating the discipline of their families. Thenceforward it was nothing uncommon, in purely civil causes, to hear the Catholic party invoke this argument, "I plead against a heretic;" and when the Protestant complained of an unjust sentence, "your remedy is in your own hand," coolly replied the Judge; "why do you not become a convert?" Children were allowed, by the edict of the 17th June, 1681, to abjure Protestantism at seven years of age, "with out their fathers or mothers and her relations being suffered to offer the least hindrance, under what pretext." The ministers were forbidden to allude to the misfortunes of the times in their sermons. Madame de Maintenon, extracts from whose letter to her brother we have just quoted, now thought it right to change her tactics, and wrote to him in these terms, "Madame d'Auignon certainly to convert some one of our younger relatives." To another person she wrote, "I am continually sending some Huguenot to church;" and, to a third, "Be converted, as so many others have been; be converted with God alone; be converted, in short, in the manner that best pleases you; but, in short, be converted." Conversion now became the fashion; the rage. None could fail in winning the smiles of Versailles, who adduced testimonials of having brought back stray sheep into the orthodox fold.

The dragonnades were renewed in 1684, and tortures were rendered ingeniously horrible. Benoit, a writer of that day, quoted by M. Weiss, says that the Marquis of Boufflers, who commanded the troops, "ordered them to deprive of rest those who would not yield to other tortures. The soldiers relieved each other, in order not themselves to sink under the torture they made others suffer. The noise of drums, the blasphemies, the shout, the crash of the furniture which they threw about, the agitation in which they kept those poor people in order to force them to remain up and with their eyes open, were the means employed to deprive them of repose. To pinch and prick them to drag them about, to suspend them by ropes, to blow tobacco smoke into their nostrils, and to hundred other cruelties, were the sports of these executioners." To these methods of conversion the victims yielded; and the pious Madame de Maintenon said, "I certainly believe that not all these conversions are sincere; but God employs all manner of means to bring heretics back to him; the children, at least, will be Catholics, though their fathers be hypocrites." The ferocious and execrable Louvois wrote to the old Chancellor, his father:—"There have been 60,000 conversions in the Généralité of Bordeaux, and 20,000 in that of Montauban. The rapidity with which this goes on is such, that there will not be 10,000 Protestants left in all the Généralité of Bordeaux, where there were 150,000 last month." Hundreds of Protestants were chained to the galleys at Marseilles and Poulon, and when they did not row quick enough, they were scourged with whips of bullock's hide. These unfortunates passed their lives on those benches, where they toiled at the oar, ate, and slept. All who could fled from these horrors, carrying their industry and skill to other lands, which they enriched at

the expense of France. In the third chapter will be found a copious and minute account, given with statistical accuracy, of the various trades flourishing in the country prior to the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, which forms of itself a very instructive addition to the history of manufactures.

The refugees dispersed themselves over Prussia, over several of the secondary states of Germany, England, America, Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, Sweden, Russia; and M. Weiss has traced them with indefatigable industry. A separate book, divided into chapters, enumerates the leading families settled in their new homes, and records their military and diplomatic services, their influence on science and literature, on trade, agriculture, and manufactures.

It would have gratified us to have given copious details of this portion of the book, but limited space denies us that pleasure; we will, however, indulge in some brief notices. There fought at the battle of the Boyne, on the side of William the Third, three French regiments of infantry, and one of cavalry, all refugees. Marshal Schomberg was in that list; he fell there mortally wounded at the age of eighty-two. He was a Marshal of France. Rapin, the historian, also drew his sword on that eventful day. After Schomberg, the Marquis of Rousilly rendered most important services to King William, by whom he was created Earl of Galloway. There was also the famous Cavalier, a native of the Ceresines, who fought with heroic valour against Marshal Berwick, at the battle of Almanza, attained to the rank of General in the British service, was appointed Governor of Jersey; and died at Chelsea, in 1740. In manufactures, Spitalfields was the scene of refugee industry; and, in a minor degree, Soho and St. Giles. The French at length became blended with the English; and many translated their names into English, by which the old families may be still known. Thus, the Lemaitres called themselves Masters; the Leroy, King; the Tonneliers, Cooper; the Lejeunes, Young; the Leblancs, White; the Lenoirs, Black; the Loiseaus, Bird.

In America the refugees distinguished themselves as agriculturists in Virginia, and in Massachusetts cleared the forests. Into South Carolina they "introduced the vine, the olive, the mulberry-tree, and most of the other agricultural productions of southern France." They flourished at Charleston as traders; and the French farms of Laurens, Manigault, and Mazyne, became famous at an early date. Laurens was elected President of the first National Congress that assembled after the Declaration of Independence, in 1776. In 1779 he was named Minister-Plenipotentiary of the United States to Holland, and was captured by a British cruiser before he reached his destination. He was committed to the Tower of London, and his heroic conduct in imprisonment showed that the old flame of liberty burned brightly in his bosom. But we must cease, though strongly tempted to proceed.

In the preface M. Weiss states from what sources he derived his materials. He visited England, Switzerland, and Holland; in London he had access to the archives of the Foreign Office, to the manuscripts in the British Museum, and to the collection of Acts and Correspondence of the French Church in Threadneedle-street. In Switzerland he consulted the federal archives of Bern; in Holland, those of the Hôtel de Ville and of the French churches at Amsterdam. Various other facilities were supplied, and M. Weiss gratefully acknowledges his obligations to M. Drouin de Luys, and many others by whom he was aided in his researches. Whatever assistance he has received, he has amply repaid, for this meritorious volume is a most valuable contribution to literature, and will be most approvingly hailed by every friend of civil and religious liberty.

VOLTAIRE AND HIS TIMES. By L. F. BUNGENER, Author of "France Before the Revolution," &c. Constable and Co.

No writer, since the establishment of Christianity, or, perhaps, since the origin of regular and studied communications between men, ever made so great a sensation during his own times as Voltaire. Since his death a shorter period has elapsed than was occupied by his protracted life; yet, the unparalleled interest and excitement raised throughout the world by the labours of that career have not matched even itself in duration. Some men, in a few years, have done what it took many succeeding centuries to undo. Voltaire's work wears worse. His fame itself is already discoloured; and the thin lacquer discloses, through a thousand rents, both the exiguity and the baseness of the metal within. The sale of a book may be great, though the esteem in which it is held be but small. Even the sale, however, of Voltaire's works has declined; nay, it has almost ceased. He must be an adventurous and sanguine publisher who would now undertake to bring out a complete edition of them, with a view to commercial profit. Yet, there are more people who buy Voltaire than who read him. Those who have libraries would think them incomplete unless they piled a few shelves with his seventy large volumes; as those who have lawns put peacocks into them, and as those who have parks stock them with deer, whether they ever eat venison or not. Except the very few inrepid students, whose practice it is to read everything an author wrote, if they read anything of his, or if they ever discuss his character, no one, probably at the present day pursues Voltaire at all. What he wrote is known—what he did is known; passages of his compositions, casually quoted in other works, are examined with curiosity and remembered with care; many of his sayings, preserved in conversation, still circulate from mouth to mouth; but his labours, in a literary sense, faded, withered, fruitless and leafless, droop already to the sandy and shallow earth out of which they sprang, and show all the signs of a sapless core in their feeble and desiccated. Plays, written a hundred and sixty years before, still keep the stage of his country, from which the compositions of his muse were gradually withdrawn ere his own death, and from which they are now virtually banished. This result cannot be ascribed to the difference of morality; for that difference is, in almost every instance, favourable to Voltaire, and adverse to Molière. As to the tragedies, where that consideration must have been still less operative, Racine and Corneille, who flourished so long before him, are still bright in their glory; and they have, in their works, witnessed the decline of Voltaire's popularity, or which they beheld the rise. In philosophy he was always the contempt of philosophers, and is no longer the oracle of schoolmen, or the adulation of the uneducated and the ignorant. To spare an allusion to his ethics or his metaphysics, in which his inferiority is more conspicuous, we know with what withering derision he was covered by Buffon, when, lest geology should seem to corroborate the Mosaic account of the Deluge, Voltaire, who treated that and all other Scriptural records as fabulous, had the intonation to contend that the sea-shells found petrified on the tops of the Alps, were either the remains of oysters, on which some army might have dined, or of the scollops dropped by the passing pilgrims of the middle ages. In history he is veritably beneath notice, except for style. In criticism, all that he has done is chiefly remarkable for the exhibition of some violent prejudice; frantic partiality and imphish hate alternately govern all his decisions. His poetry we leave to the French. If they are proud of it, we are content. His own theory was that the versification was the very soul of poetry, and the rhyme the essence of the versification. Taken all in all, his literature wants heart; and *pectus est quod disertum facit*. He never wrote or said an eloquent thing in his life. He was devoid even of true imagination, which helps the heart when a man is addressing his fellow-men. His greatest talent was his wit, but among his qualities, whether talents or not, among all his characteristics, intellectual and moral, that which constituted his chief strength, and in which he was indeed *pollens potentique* was his indefatigable activity. This, too, was in its kind, peculiarly in keeping with the nature of his spirit. He was at work always, but he never, in any one subject or transaction, worked much below the surface. Keenly flippancy, gaily sententious adroitness, rapid, versatile, showy, sparkling, his compositions in prose, and especially in prose militant, resemble a succession of tit-for-tat, of intimations, of implied conclusions which could never be sustained, of hinted consequences which never could be demonstrated.

But how, then, was he so mighty a man—the incarnation of an era in its irresistible day? Because he took service with the era, and made himself the representative of its desires, in all their undisciplined extravagance, and of its feelings in all their astounding titubance and corruption. To have achieved half his influence, either in opposing the perverse spirit of that era, or during nobler and sounder times, would have required ten times his genius. But his influence, if at first less extensive, would also have been less pernicious. Voltaire, on that side which he espoused in every question; Voltaire on that side, we say, and in that particular age and country, had he met fifty Voltaires opposed to him would have prevailed against them. This is an enormous question in its extent, and we must rely upon the clearness with which we have traced the mere shape and outline of our position, for it is quite impossible in the limits of this article to support it further. Whoever will reflect closely on what we have said, will find the solution of a historical mystery, which would otherwise remain inexplicable.

As for M. Bungener, he is a bungler, to speak in Voltaire's own vein. There is no arrangement in his work; it is a confused mass of German-

like twaddle. Voltaire's times furnish a subject which is still to treat, and materials for a fine book, which we hope may yet be written.

EVENINGS IN MY TENT; or, Wand-rings in Balad Eljareed. By the Rev. N. DAVIS, F.R.S.S.A. Hall, Virtue, and Co.

A work on North Africa, of which so little is known, forms an interesting addition to modern literature, and the volumes before us will well repay a careful perusal. The author possessed peculiar advantages as a tourist into the interior of the country, having for many years resided on its shores, where he had constant intercourse with stragglers from various tribes. He was acquainted with the languages and usages of the people, and their religious peculiarities. In contemplation of such a journey, when a favourable opportunity presented itself, he had studied their moral and social condition; and, fortunately, was enabled to accomplish his wish under the auspices of Sidi Mohammed Bey, heir apparent to the throne of Tunis, who is described as a "Prince of excellent qualities, among which extreme kindness and affability are not the least prominent." Our traveller had no extraordinary dangers to encounter, as the expedition was protected by a military escort; when they encamped, he had a comfortable tent; nor were provisions ever wanting. His only hardship appears to have arisen from a scorching sun, the occasional intrusion of poisonous snakes, and some reports of an invasion of lions. His only toes were polemics, skilled in the mysteries of the Mohammedan law, and now and then a fanatic Dervish. On the whole he was peculiarly favoured, and his tour was peaceable and pleasurable.

African exploration was first commenced by a company of British merchants in 1618, attracted by the hope of discovering gold. The adventurers ascended the Gambia; but their leader, George Thompson, fell a victim to the climate, and further enterprise was abandoned. Others shortly followed the track that had been opened, but the shallows and sand banks of the Gambia rendered all efforts to penetrate further than Thompson had done, unsuccessful. In 1788 an association was organised, not of a mercantile character, whose object was the advancement of geographical and other knowledge, and many intrepid men perished in attempting to accomplish its views. Ledyard, who died in Cairo, in 1788, was the first martyr to this scientific exploration. Our readers are familiar with the names of his equally unfortunate successors, as Mungo Park and Burkhardt, Bowditch and Clapperton, and others, whose untimely loss the friends of civilisation have deeply lamented. Experience has shown that little can be hoped from the unaided efforts of a few individuals, and Mr. Davis recommends a totally different system of operations from any yet pursued. "At an expenditure," he observes, "not exceeding the sum of £3000 annually, we might form an educational establishment at Tunis, for the express purpose of preparing young Arabs to explore Africa. In such an establishment we might train, at least, twenty natives of Cafia, Tozar, or Nefta, who, lived in the desert, might be fitted, at the expiration of three years, to sweep those wilful, south, east, and west, comparatively with perfect ease and safety. Such travellers, instructed in the use and employment of implements and instruments of an agricultural, and domestic, and scientific nature—taught the advantages to be derived from legitimate commerce—informed of the markets open in Europe and elsewhere, for the various articles of merchandise, forming the products of the Saharan countries, and themselves trained to appreciate the advantages and blessings of education—would not be long without profiting the hitherto neglected savages of the heart of Africa, and producing a reformation which would speedily be perceptible in the civilised world." Tunis is proposed as this new seat of learning, and with good reason, for that Regency took the lead in abolishing the slave-trade—a very decided step in African progress. As commerce is a great civiliser, the resources of Tunis can be rendered highly available in strengthening the educational movement. It has abundance of cattle, which are now exported in large numbers to Malta. Among the cultivated plants are hard wheat, barley, maize, tobacco, olives, figs, oranges, almonds, and many other varieties. The mountains in the neighbourhood are rich in mines of silver, copper, and lead. Near Porto Farina there is quicksilver; and Mr. Davis has "good grounds for asserting that there is also a gold mine in the country." English steamers are now regularly plying up and down the Mediterranean; and our author states that from Tunis "they might always find passengers and cargo for the east and west of that sea." There are existing treaties between England and the Regency, and, with a little energy, an immense trade, after a few years, might be carried on with the country, especially when the pupils trained at the proposed college had instructed the natives in the interior.

Mr. Davis visited Cafia, the ancient Cæssa, one of the strongholds of Jugurtha, who was betrayed by Bocchus, King of Mauritania, into the hands of the famous Marius, and by him paraded at his triumph with his two sons, before he was starved to death. The environs of the modern city are described as charming, but the city itself consists of "filthy, decrepit, dirty inhabitants, and dilapidated houses." This part of the country is infested with locusts, as it was during the dominion of the Romans; and Mr. Davis tells us that "Ahmed Basha, the reigning sovereign of the Regency of Tunis, ordered out some 2000 of his men of war" to dig trenches and pits, to kindle fires, and so prevent the enemy's progress. They discharged their guns at the flying hordes and buried millions of them. The swarms, however, were so thick, and so bent were they on their onward march, that, although the foremost were exposed to such imminent danger, the rear, notwithstanding, pressed on closely; and, in spite of the courage manifested by the troops of the ruler of Tunis, the damage the invading army caused was very great.

The visit to Carthage is extremely interesting. It is only twelve miles distant from Tunis. No native historian, whose writings have survived the ravages of time, has recorded the various struggles of the great Republic, and we learn its career and fate from the suspicious testimony of its most inveterate foes. The lofty verse of Tasso has shed a mournful grandeur over its ruins, but of these few vestiges remain visible to the traveller; and yet, according to Livy, its circumference was no less than twenty-three miles, and surrounded by a triple wall upwards of thirty feet high. It was destroyed by Scipio, by Genseric, and by the Mohammedan general, Hassan. It is presumed that some portions of the wreck were used to embellish Tunis and also Cairuan, the Mohammedan capital of modern Africa. The question is, what has become of the remains of this famous capital? Mr. Davis thinks that they still exist, but are buried. "By the agency of the winds from the Sahara, deposit after deposit of sand and dust were accumulated, which increased, in the course of time, to a foot in depth of arable soil, and, in some parts to several feet, beneath which slumber the remains of the once mighty Carthage! The plough now passes over a fertile soil, which is supported by fabrics built in the days of Dido, Hanno, Amilcar, Asdrubal, and Hannibal!"

The cautious reader may ask, is this imaginative; or, is the opinion supported by facts? It is stated that a youth commenced digging at Byrsa, the site of the ancient citadel of Carthage, and in a few days "cleared a beautiful apartment, the floor of which was richly decorated with mosaic of a most elegant design." Other parties, after several months' labour, opened an interior, believed to be the temple of Æsculapius; a conjecture rendered highly probable by the fact that the capitals are adorned with entwined snakes; and the columns, about two feet in diameter, are of a fine red-grained granite, and of the Corinthian order." The site of the temple of Ganath, the Juno Cælestis (the tutelary Goddess of Carthage), was explored by Sir Grenville Temple in 1858; and from his excavations more than 700 coins were recovered. He also cleared some rooms of what was supposed to have been a villa. "The walls were painted, and the floors beautifully paved with mosaics, similar to those of Pompeii and Herculaneum, representing a great variety of subjects, such as marine deities, different species of fish, marine plants, a vessel with female figures dancing on the deck, surrounded by admiring warriors. The mosaic designs of another place consisted of gladiators contending in the arena with wild beasts, and over each man was written his name. In the vicinity of these were discovered representations of horse-races, and of men breaking in young horses." The French have also made excavations into the antiquities of Carthage; and M. Delaporte obtained from the Bey a colossal bust of the Samian Juno, which was presented to the Imperial Museum of the Louvre.

A chapter of these volumes is devoted to sacred geography, to determine the localities of Iarshish and Ophir, and the course of the combined fleets of Solomon and Hiram, in which the learned author displays much official acumen. Mr. Davis does not think that they ever circumnavigated Africa, but that they "entered into the Bay of Heropolis, or the Gulf of Suez, passed through the canal of Senosiris, into one of the branches of the Nile, and thence sailed into the Mediterranean Sea."

The doctrines of the Mohammedans, the bearing of particular passages in the Koran, the real or presumed part taken in its compilation by a Jew who was a friend of the Arabian Prophets, and the opinions of Jews now inhabiting the desert, and who are unable to give any account of the origin of early migration of their ancestors, are all treated with rare ability. We take leave of the book with a strong conviction that it will eminently promote the cause of religion, civilisation, and commerce.

EDUCATION CENSUS.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

We have now the Report of the Census Commissioners on Education. The delay in producing it is partly accounted for by the return having been incomplete, and by the Commissioners having opened a correspondence with their officers to get information concerning several thousand schools, not included in the returns. A whole year elapsed before the correspondence closed, and then it required a considerable time to reduce the multiplied and complex materials into order. Returns were received from 44,836 day schools* (15,411 public and 29,425 private); from 20,137 Sunday schools; from 1545 evening schools for adults; and from 1057 Literary, Scientific, and Mechanics' Institutions. From 1206 other day schools (107 public and 1099 private), and 377 other Sunday schools, no returns were procured. Assuming that each of these last-named schools contained, upon an average, as many scholars, as each of the schools which made returns, the following is the general result:—

	Day Schools.			Sunday Schools.	Evening Schools for Adults.
	Total.	Public.	Private.		
Schools	46,012	15,518	30,524	23,514	1,545
Scholars	2,144,378	1,422,982	721,396	2,407,642	39,783

The total number of males in day schools is estimated to be 1,157,685, and of females 986,693; of which there are—in public schools, 801,156 males and 621,826 females; and in private schools, 356,529 males and 364,867 females. The male scholars in Sunday schools are estimated to be 1,093,788, and the female, 1,213,854.

SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.—We must remind the reader, that since the latter end of last century popular education has engaged the energies of many of the most philanthropic men of the age. Till 1833, the object was promoted exclusively by private exertions. Then the Government began to devote to it a portion of taxation, and from that time till 1850 applied about £1,000,000. The result of this activity, is thus explained:—

It appears as to Day-schools that while in 1818 there was a scholar for every 17.25 persons, and in 1833 a scholar for every 11.27 persons, in 1851 there was a scholar for every 8.36 persons; and as to Sunday-schools, it appears that while in 1818 there was one Sunday scholar for every 24.40 persons, and in 1833 one scholar for every 9.28 persons, in 1851 there was one scholar to every 7.45 persons. The increase between 1818 and 1851 was, of day scholars, 218 per cent, and of Sunday scholars 404 per cent; while the increase of population was but 54 per cent.

The following Table shows the figures for each of the three periods:—

Periods.	Population at each Period.	Number of Scholars at each Period.		Proportion of Scholars to Population at each Period.	
		Day Scholars	Sunday Scholars	Day Scholars	Sunday Scholars
1818	11,647,693	674,883	477,225	17.25	24.40
1833	14,366,415	1,276,947	1,548,890	11.27	9.28
1851	17,927,099	2,144,378	2,407,642	8.36	7.45

We will now subjoin a Table to show how many of our present schools had their origin before the beginning of this century, and how many since:—

Date.	Number of existing schools established at each period.		
	Total.	Public.	Private.
Before 1801	3,363	2,876	487
1801 — 1811	1,042	599	443
1811 — 1821	2,207	1,110	1,097
1821 — 1831	3,182	1,665	2,217
1831 — 1841	7,467	3,035	4,432
1841 — 1851	22,214	5,454	16,760
Date not specified ..	6,267	1,169	5,098
Total	46,042	15,518	30,524

PROPORTION OF CHILDREN AT SCHOOL.—This rate of progress is satisfactory. It is generally assumed that the provision for education is sufficient if 1 in 8 of the population can attend school. On the population returned by the Census, 17,927,099 for England and Wales, this proportion gives 2,240,951 scholars as the number who should then have been receiving instruction; and as the number was 2,144,378 independent of Sunday scholars, or 1 in 8.36, it is plain that the means of education in England and Wales are not so deficient as they are generally represented. Probably, however, a few youths more than can find schooling, like a few quarters of corn at market more than is required, gives, as it were, a bad character to the whole, and degrades the market, or the morality, in proportion far more than commensurate to the arithmetical surplus. From the information gathered by the Census, as to the ages and occupations of the people, Mr. Mann is of opinion that about 4,908,696 persons between the ages of three and fifteen, in England and Wales, ought to be at school. Deducting from this number 1,000,000 as so engaged in occupations as to be unable to attend, 5 per cent for those who are ill, and 50,000 for those educated at home—he says 3,663,261 children should be at school. Further deductions, however, are to be made for the age at which parents will choose to allow their children to remain at school—only rarely to so late an age as fifteen years—and will consent to send them—as the rule, not before they are five years old; and making allowances for these, the conclusion is that 3,000,000 children should be at school (3,015,405). Assuming this to be the standard, our means of education are yet very deficient, and the number of children who attend day-schools, is 900,000 less than ought to attend, or almost a third.

We doubt, however, whether the age of fifteen be not much too high to expect children to remain at school. In practice boys go to work when they are twelve years old, or at an earlier age; and the practice is better than the theory. When the mind and the limbs are growing and plastic, both are easily fashioned to perform what is to be the actual business of the mature and rigid man. At fifteen the mind and the body have both acquired peculiar habits that may not be suitable for the business the man will have to live by. Except, perhaps, for a few occupations, such as those of the counting-house and a part of factory labour, school life is not, and cannot be, a fitting preparation for business. How can school give a boy the habits and taste suitable to a sailor? The age of fifteen places the limit of remaining at school too high. We prefer, therefore, the general estimate of Mr. Mann; and conclude that the national means of education, on the whole, are now very little, if at all, deficient, were they properly and equally distributed.

WHAT IS TAUGHT.—The following is an account of what the children are generally taught.

In the 44,836 school establishments of England and Wales, from which returns were received, it appears that boys were taught (alone or along with girls) in 41,035 (14,995 public and 26,040 private), while girls were taught (alone or along with boys) in 40,016 (14,084 public, and 25,932 private). The number in which instruction was given in each of the eleven subjects, as to which inquiry was preferred, is given in the following Table:—

Subjects of Instruction.	Boys' Schools.				Girls' Schools.			
	Number of Schools in which instruction is given upon each subject.	Public.	Private.	Percentage of the whole Number of Schools.	Number of Schools in which instruction is given upon each subject.	Public.	Private.	Percentage of the whole Number of Schools.
Total number of Schools ..	12,741	21,252	100	100	11,837	21,091	100	100
Reading	12,535	20,780	98.4	97.8	11,745	20,651	99.2	93.2
Writing	11,564	11,724	90.8	55.2	10,414	13,988	88.0	66.3
Arithmetic	10,707	10,231	84.5	48.1	9,847	11,123	83.2	52.7
English Grammar ..	7,858	7,400	61.7	34.8	5,253	9,052	44.4	42.9
Geography	7,051	6,481	55.3	30.5	5,780	7,999	48.8	37.9
Modern Languages ..	531	2,078	4.2	9.8	202	2,500	1.7	13.8
Ancient ditto	799	2,041	6.3	9.6	44	401	0.4	1.9
Mathematics	1,742	2,003	13.7	9.4	49	157	0.4	0.7
Drawing	1,478	1,789	11.6	8.4	327	1,781	2.8	8.4
Music	2,236	1,164	17.5	5.5	1,610	3,323	13.6	15.8
Industrial Occupations ..	620	250	4.9	1.9	5,364	6,006	45.3	28.5

* The term "school" is used to denote a distinct establishment. Thus, a school for both boys and girls, in an one general management and conducted in one range of buildings, is regarded as only one school, although the total of the scholars is in separate compartments, or the building, under separate superintendence.

The number of scholars instructed in particular branches of learning, so far as concerns 1,818,024 children out of the 2,144,378—viz., for 1,240,093 connected with public schools (699,167 males and 540,926 females), and for 577,931 connected with private schools (289,443 males and 288,488 females), is—

Subjects of Instruction.	Boys.				Girls.			
	Number of Scholars receiving instruction upon each subject.	Public Schools.	Private Schools.	Percentage of the whole Number of Scholars.	Number of Scholars receiving instruction upon each subject.	Public Schools.	Private Schools.	Percentage of the whole Number of Scholars.
Total number of Scholars ..	699,167	289,448	100	100	540,926	288,483	100	87.4
Reading	625,863	244,198	89.5	84.4	1,639,0	252,136	89.9	87.4
Writing	4,311,6	145,242	67.7	50.1	331,626	132,781	61.3	46.0
Arithmetic	4,616,5	131,469	61.0	45.4	261,201	105,450	48.3	36.5
English Grammar ..	179,293	90,810	25.6	31.4	98,478	86,887	18.2	30.0
Geography	217,295	85,176	31.0	29.4	134,140	77,999	24.8	27.0
Modern Languages ..	16,255	24,145	2.3	8.3	5,679	22,689	1.0	7.8
Ancient ditto	18,562	23,930	2.7	8.2	1,789	1,641	0.2	0.6
Mathematics	19,233	17,927	2.8	5.9	523	934	0.1	0.3
Drawing	35,524	19,139	5.1	6.6	5,344	9,685	1.0	3.4
Music	88,322	9,079	12.6	3.1	52,137	25,443	9.6	8.8
Industrial Occupations ..	17,190	2,551	2.5	0.9	232,374	87,881	43.0	30.4

The education of females at school is less general than that of males. Out of 8,781,225 males, there were 1,157,685 scholars, or 13.2 per cent; and out of 9,146,384 females, there were only 986,693 scholars, or 10.8 per cent. A larger proportion of boys than of girls continue late at school. The following Table shows the comparative proportion of Education in different Counties:—

County.	Proportion per cent of Day Scholars to Population.	County.	Proportion per cent of Day Scholars to Population.	County.	Proportion per cent of Day Scholars to Population.
Bedford	10.4	Kent	13.9	Suffolk	12.3
Berks	13.3	Lancaster	10.6	Surrey	12.5
Backingham ..	11.6	Leicester	12.3	Sussex	13.7
Cambridge	13.1	Lincoln	12.8	Warwick	10.8
Cheshire	12.1	Middlesex	10.6	Westmoreland ..	15.4
Cornwall	10.9	Monmouth	9.0	Wiltshire	13.7
Cumberland	13.0	Norfolk	12.1	Worcester	11.0
Derby	12.6	Northampton ..	12.5	York East Riding ..	13.1
Devon	11.3	Northumberland ..	12.3	York City	15.9
Dorset	13.6	Nottingham	11.5	York N. Riding ..	13.7
Durham	12.6	Oxford	13.8	York W. Riding ..	12.2
Essex	12.6	Rutland	14.8	North Wales	9.0
Gloucester	12.2	Salop	11.0	South Wales	8.6
Hereford	9.9	Somerset	12.1	ENGLAND AND ..	12.0
Hertford	14.0	Southampton ..	14.3	WALES	12.0
Huntingdon	14.0	Stafford	10.9		

SCHOOLS CLASSIFIED.—We have stated above the total number of schools and scholars; and must now quote a Table in which these schools are classified:—

Classes of Public Schools.	Number of Schools.	Number of Scholars.		
		Total.	Males.	Females.
Class I.—Supported by General or Local Taxation	610	48,826	28,708	20,118
Class II.—Supported by Endowments	3,125	206,279	138,495	67,784
Class III.—Supported by Religious Bodies	10,595	1,048,851	569,300	479,551
Class IV.—Other Public Schools	1,081	109,214	59,129	50,085
Total of Public Schools	15,411	1,413,170	795,632	617,538

PUBLIC AND ENDOWED SCHOOLS.—Of the first class, thirty five are military and fourteen naval schools; one is a school supported by the Woods and Forests; and three are corporation schools; 523 are workhouse schools; and thirty-four prison schools. In them 28,708 males and 20,118 females are taught. From 107 public schools no returns were obtained and they are not included. Of the schools supported by endowment, 566 are collegiate and grammar schools, and 2559 are "other endowed schools." Besides these, 869 school, principally supported by religious bodies, are endowed, and 27 schools are endowed by public subscription; making, in fact, the total of other endowed schools, or schools receiving any amount of endowment, 4021, which teach 317,576 scholars. The total income of all schools supported by endowment is stated to be £288,986, which is very much below the usual estimate of £500,000 devoted to this purpose. Between 1751 and 1801 there were endowed 829 schools, and between 1801 and 1851, 833. The date of the most ancient endowed school is A.D. 1216, and then follows 1268, 1284, 1350, and so on.

SCHOOLS SUPPORTED BY RELIGIOUS BODIES.—These have been rapidly augmented. The schools of Class III. amounting 10,595 came into existence in the following periods:—

	No. of Schools.
Before 1801	766
1801—1811	410
1811—1821	879
1821—1831	1,021
1831—1841	2,417
1841—1851	4,604
Not stated	498

Within the last fourteen years, therefore, 4604 schools have been built, supposed to be capable of containing 450,000 scholars, which is a striking testimony to the zeal for education displayed in our age. Of the expense, it is said—

"The total income, for the year 1850, of the 5761 schools, from which sufficiently authentic statements were received was £459,627. The number of scholars in these schools being 634,134, this makes the average annual expense of each to be 14. 6d. If it can be assumed that the income of the remaining 4834 schools was the same per scholar as that of the above 5761, the total annual income of the whole 10,595 schools in Class III. having 1,048,851 scholars, will be £760,218; and if the 2113 schools belonging to religious bodies—which have been placed amongst "Endowed Schools," in Class II.—be taken into account, the total income will be £960,188 for 1,188,786 scholars; as follows:—

Sources of Income.	Schools in Class III.		Total of Schools supported in any degree by Religious Bodies.	
	Aggregate Income.	Average Amount per Scholar.	Aggregate Income.	Average Amount per Scholar.
From Permanent Endowment ..	£ 5,779	0 s. 6 d.	£ 152,087	0 s. 2 d.
" Voluntary Contributions ..	370,340	0 s. 7 d.	398,222	0 s. 6 d.
" Grants from Government ..	42,064	0 s. 10 d.	43,439	0 s. 9 d.
" Payments by Scholars	299,135	0 s. 4 d.	299,926	0 s. 5 d.
" Other Sources	56,900	0 s. 1 d.	69,514	0 s. 2 d.
Total	760,218	0 s. 14 d.	960,188	0 s. 15 d.

For 8232 of the schools of religious bodies there are 44,167 teachers (22,176 males and 21,991 females), thus composed, viz., 14,858 general teachers (8902 masters and 5956 mistresses), 8312 paid monitors and pupil teachers (4118 males and 3894 females), and 20,997 unpaid teachers (11,856 males and 9141 females). These teachers instruct 875,238 scholars (484,112 males and 391,126 females). It is assumed that the proportions of teachers to scholars is the same in the remaining 2363 schools as in the above 8232, the total number of teachers, and of each kind, in the schools of religious bodies, contained in Class III., will be—

	Total.	Males.	Females.
Masters and Mistresses	17,923	6,941	10,981
Paid Monitors and Pupil-Teachers ..	10,073	5,196	4,877
Unpaid Teachers	25,150	13,942	11,208
Total	53,146	26,079	27,066

From what can be gathered, from the facts returned for the two counties of Lancashire and Lincolnshire, the accounts in general being imperfect, it appears that the average emolument of masters is £55, and of mistresses, £31.

THE EXTENT OF SCHOOL ACCOMMODATION provided by different religious bodies is seen by the following Table:—

Religious Denominations.	Number of Schools and Scholars. Including all Schools receiving Support to any Amount from Religious Bodies.	
	Schools.	Scholars.
Denominational:—		
Church of England	10,555	929,474
Church of Scotland	5	946
United Presbyterian Church ..	3	217
Presbyterian Church in England ..	28	2,723
Scottish Presbyterians	1	345
Presbyterians	13	2,010
Independents	453	50,186
Baptists	131	9,300
Society of Friends	23	3,026
Unitarians	39	4,306
Moravians	7	366
Wesleyan Methodists	381	41,141
Methodist New Connection	14	1,851
Primitive Methodists	26	1,342
Bible Christians	8	367
Wesleyan Association	11	1,176
Calvinistic Methodists	44	2,929
Lady Huntingdon's Connection ..	10	714
New Church	9	1,551
Disciples	49	5,805
Isolated Protestant Congregations ..	14	1,144
Lutherans	2	221
French Protestants	1	15
Roman Mission	2	116
Roman Catholics	339	41,382
Jews	12	2,361
Not connected with any particular denomination	514	82,597
Others	4	1,062
Total	12,708	1,188,786

Of course, at all the schools "common things" are taught; and it is pleasing to see, from the list already given, that in the public girls' schools, in 45.3 per cent of the whole useful industrial occupations are taught; while, of the public boys' schools, in only 4.9 per cent of the whole are these occupations taught. But the occupations of the males being more out of doors than the occupations of females, the latter can better than the former be taught in schools.

SPECIAL SCHOOLS, or other Public Schools, are classified and enumerated as follows:—

Description of Schools.	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.		Description of Schools.	No. of Schools.	No. of Scholars.	
		Males.	Females.			Males.	Females.
Ragged Schools (exclusive of those supported by Religious Bodies) ..	123	12,705	9,632	Foundry School ..	1	55	48
Orphan Schools	39	1,712	2,651	Mechanics' Institution ..	5	1,223	341
Blind Schools	11	342	269	Industrial Schools ..	6	383	224
Deaf and Dumb Schools	9	202	19	Agricultural Schools ..	3	203	61
Schools for Idiots	1	16	..	Railway Schools ..	5	440	402
Factory Schools	115	9,724	8,111	Philanthropic Society's Farm School ..	1	96	..
Culinary Schools	41	2,013	1,459	Subscription School of no specific character ..	717	29,582	26,856
Chemical Work Schools	4	433	35	Total	108	50,129	50,085

Ragged schools, factory schools, and schools of no specific character, altogether accommodate nearly

In England the number of Sunday scholars to the population is 13.4 per cent; in Scotland not above 10.1 per cent.

EVENING SCHOOLS FOR ADULTS—returns from 438 of which were obtained—are attended by 15,071 scholars, 9500 being males, and 5571 females. The payments vary from less than 1d. per week to 4d. and upwards; but in the largest number the payments are between 3d. and 4d. Of such schools there are 11 in Aberdeen, 61 in the county of Edinburgh, 35 in Forfar, 37 in Renfrew, and 172 in Lanark. In the counties of Elgin, Inverness, Nairn, Orkney and Shetland, and Wigton, there are none of these schools; but they are found in all the rest of the counties. The occupations of the persons attending these schools are thus stated:—

Agricultural Labourers ..	561	Sawyers ..	2
Miners ..	249	Architects and Engineers ..	52
Lead Miners ..	34	Shopkeepers ..	50
Coal Miners ..	136	Warehousemen ..	278
Coal and Lime Stone Miners ..	29	Mercantile ..	39
Coal and Iron Operatives ..	343	Clerks ..	166
Ironmongers ..	1	Tradesmen's Apprentices ..	14
Employed on Public Works ..	10	Butchers ..	2
Artisans (not otherwise defined) ..	4,366	Gardeners ..	18
Factory Operatives ..	2,397	Seamen ..	41
Woolen Manufacture ..	52	Fishermen ..	31
Weavers ..	349	Soldiers ..	53
Bleachers ..	287	Police Officers ..	5
Block Machine Printers ..	13	Domestic Servants ..	553
Tambourers ..	34	Labourers (not otherwise de-)	6
Shoemakers and Curriers ..	30	ned) ..	6
Paper Makers ..	50	Not stated ..	4,774
Dressmakers ..	24		
Seamstresses ..	2	Total ..	15,071

There are 221 literary, mechanics', and other similar institutions, of which a list is supplied that will be extremely useful for reference.

ISLANDS IN THE BRITISH SEAS.—The present volume also supplies us with the following account of the number of Schools and Scholars in the Islands in the British Seas:—

Description of Schools.	Isle of Man.				Jersey.				Guernsey and adjacent Islands.			
	No. of Schools.		No. of Scholars on the Books.		No. of Schools.		No. of Scholars on the Books.		No. of Schools.		No. of Scholars on the Books.	
	Total.	Sex.	Total.	Sex.	Total.	Sex.	Total.	Sex.	Total.	Sex.	Total.	Sex.
Public Day Schools ..	69	4671	2809	1862	14	1990	1192	798	28	2477	1289	1188
Private Day Schools ..	57	1662	844	818	85	2938	1652	1286	87	1994	880	1114
Total Day Schools ..	126	6333	3653	2680	99	4928	2844	2084	115	4471	2169	2302
Sunday Schools.												
Church of Eng-land ..	28	2347	1095	1252	16	2242	1123	1119	12	2215	990	1225
Independents ..	2	133	68	65	2	54	21	33	1	113	55	58
French Inde-pendents	1	22	12	10	1	27	11	16
Baptists	2	129	5	71
Wesleyan Meth-odists ..	36	2778	1354	1424	11	947	486	461	14	1600	754	846
French Wesley-an Methodists	10	636	290	346
Methodist New Connexion	1	133	68	65
Primitive Meth-odists ..	18	1385	687	698	1	135	71	64	1	63	37	26
Bible Christians	1	232	118	114	1	35	12	23
Wesleyan Re-formers ..	1	80	45	35
Isolated Con-gregations ..	2	171	86	85
Total Sunday Schools ..	87	6894	3335	3559	42	4268	2121	2147	33	4315	1985	2330

In the Isle of Man there is 1 scholar to every 8½ inhabitants; in Jersey, 1 scholar to every 11½ inhabitants; and in Guernsey, 1 scholar to every 7½ inhabitants. The two latter have rather a high reputation for their schools; and in them, property being minutely divided and easy of transfer, the inhabitants are remarkable for their enterprise and skill. In Jersey a number of fine vessels are continually being built; and, until the late improvements in naval architecture, few vessels surpassed the Jersey craft.

RELIGIOUS WORSHIP.

ISLANDS IN THE BRITISH SEAS.

ISLE OF MAN—Population, 52,387.

Has 132 places of worship—39 Church of England; 86 Wesleyan; 2 Presbyterian; 1 Independent; 4 Roman Catholic. Number of sittings 32,985, of which 13,770 are free; of attendants at worship on Census Sunday, 10,512 morning; 7512 afternoon; and 11,892 evening.

ISLAND OF JERSEY—Population, 57,020.

Has 57 places of worship—20 Church of England; 1 Free Presbyterian; 5 Independent; 1 Unitarian; 24 Wesleyan; 1 New Church; 1 Calvinist; 1 Christian Church; 2 Roman Catholic; 1 Latter-day Saints. Number of sittings 25,192, of which 6864 are free; of attendants at worship on Census Sunday, 12,467 morning; 3256 afternoon; 10,300 evening.

ISLAND OF GUERNSEY, AND ADJACENT ISLES—Population, 33,719.

Has 64 places of worship—16 Church of England; 7 Independent; 6 Baptist; 1 Society of Friends; 2 Brethren; 1 Bethel Union; 1 Church of Christ; 1 Various; 2 Roman Catholic; 1 Latter-day Saints. Number of sittings 32,827, of which 10,670 are free; of attendants at worship on Census Sunday, 8480 morning; 2499 afternoon; 10,181 evening. It must be remarked that the returns for the Islands are incomplete.

SCOTLAND.

The enumeration of persons attending Public Worship, being voluntary, was more imperfect in Scotland than in England, and the want of local registrars prevented its being made tolerably complete by subsequent inquiries. The following is the

SUMMARY OF THE WHOLE OF SCOTLAND—Population, 2,888,742.

Religious Denominations.	Number of Places of Worship.	Number of Sittings.†		Number of Attendants: at Public Worship on Sunday, March 30, 1851.		
		Free.	Total.	Morn-	After-	Even-
PROTESTANT CHURCHES.						
Presbyterians—						
Established Church	904	206,170	529,764	228,757	119,888	20,023
Reformed Presbyterian Church ..	37	3,412	13,924	6,946	5,930	1,733
Original Secession Church ..	30	3,195	12,774	5,286	4,611	1,312
Relief Church	2	370	1,020	220	250	275
United Presbyterian Church ..	427	45,724	254,024	143,443	131,927	27,762
Free Church	824	139,658	421,787	255,482	173,565	56,645
Episcopal Church	112	7,811	29,867	21,130	9,072	4,200
Independents, or Congrega- tionalists	168	32,310	58,847	22,131	20,851	14,484
Baptists	100	15,632	17,537	7,196	6,045	3,138
Society of Friends	6	430	1,230	168	122	..
Unitarians	1	800	1,950	690	104	684
United Brethren, or Moravians ..	1	200	200	16	..	55
Wesleyan Methodists—						
Original Connection	61	7,587	15,961	6,847	2,173	7,011
Primitive Methodists	10	1,730	1,890	327	404	715
Independent Methodists	1	400	600	190	150	180
Wesleyan R-formers	1	11	..	11
Glassites, or Sandemanians	6	890	890	429	554	100
New Church	5	330	710	211	67	120
Campbellites	1	80	80	11	14	..
Evangelical Union	27	2,146	7,371	3,756	4,343	2,093
Isolated Congregations—						
Various	8	350	1,450	715	77	406
Common	2	360	360	..	220	..
Unsectarian	1	..	320	200
City Mission	7	330	780	70	40	686
Christians	7	716	1,131	417	236	280
Christian Disciples	14	1,608	1,647	503	49	188
Christian Reformation	1	50	50	..	11	..
Reformed Christians	1	8	..	8
Free Christian Brethren	1	340	340	180	261	..
Primitive Christians	2	60	210	57	74	..
Protestants	4	1,210	1,210	230	400	935
Reformation	1	250	250	10	18	..
Reformed Protestants	1	725	725	130	..	105
Separatists	1	11
Christian Chartists	1	220	220	100	80	..
Denomination not stated	6	330	330	..	70	316
OTHER CHRISTIAN CHURCHES.						
Roman Catholics	104	12,510	41,040	33,377	15,999	11,268
Catholic and Apostolic Church ..	3	450	450	272	126	190
Latter-day Saints, or Mormons ..	20	1,393	1,432	1,239	1,164	834
Jews	1	36	67	28	..	7
Total	2,914	490,213	1,422,438	740,794	499,349	155,765

Besides the places of worship embraced by the actual enumeration, and included in this return, there are 481 other places, of worship from which no returns were made. Mr. Mann, assumes, however, "an aggregate of 3395 places of worship, and 1,834,805 sittings; the proportion of sittings to population being 63.5 per cent. The number of attendants on the Census Sunday was—morning, 943,951; afternoon, 619,863; evening, 188,874; the proportion to the population being—morning, 32.7 per cent; afternoon, 21.4 per cent; evening, 6.5 per cent. The corresponding proportion for England and Wales was—morning, 25.9 per cent; afternoon, 17.7 per cent; evening, 17.1 per cent." This tabular view condenses much information in a small compass:—

Religious Denominations.	No. of Places of Worship.	No. of Sittings.	Number of Attendances at Public Worship on Sunday, March 30, 1851.			Proportion per Cent of Attendances to Population.		
			Morn-ing.	After-noon.	Even-ing.	Morn-ing.	After-noon.	Even-ing.
Established Church ..	1,183	767,088	351,454	184,192	30,763	12.2	6.4	1.1
United Pres-byterian ..	469	288,100	159,191	146,411	30,910	5.5	5.1	0.8
Free Church ..	885	495,355	292,308	198,583	64,811	10.1	6.9	2.2
Other Churches ..	858	234,282	140,998	90,677	62,490	4.9	3.1	2.1
Total ..	3,395	1,834,805	943,951	619,863	188,874	32.7	21.4	6.5

* From the lists forwarded to the Census office, it appears that there were 481 other places of worship existing at the time of the Census, but from which no returns were procured.

† The returns afford no information as to the number of sittings in 285 of the above-mentioned 2914 places of worship. Of these, 87 belonged to the Established Church, 5 to the Reformed Presbyterian Church, 2 to the Original Secession Church, 17 to the United Presbyterian Church, 67 to the Free Church, 12 to the Episcopal Church, 20 to the Independents, 20 to the Baptists, 2 to the Society of Friends, 1 to the Unitarians, 5 to the Wesleyan Original Connection, 1 to the Wesleyan Reformers, 1 to the Glasites, 7 to the Evangelical Union, 13 to Isolated Congregations, 13 to Roman Catholics, 1 to the Catholic and Apostolic Church, and 11 to the Latter Day Saints.

‡ The number of attendants was not stated in the case of 242 of the above-mentioned 2914 places of worship. Of these, 134 belonged to the Established Church; 6 to the Reformed Presbyterians, 1 to the Original Secession, 8 to the United Presbyterians, 47 to the Free Church; 7 to the Episcopal Church, 7 to the Independents, 7 to the Baptists, 1 to the Unitarians, 4 to the Wesleyan Original Connection, 3 to Isolated Congregations, 15 to the Roman Catholics, and one to the Latter Day Saints.

ADDITIONS TO CENSUS LISTS PUBLISHED WITH "THE ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS," APRIL 22.

The different form in which the last Census Returns were published from any previous returns, and their very complicated nature, occasioned some omissions and errors in our Lists. The additions and corrections we now publish will, we hope, make them complete and correct.

Population.				Population.				Population.				Population.			
Names of Places.				Names of Places.				Names of Places.				Names of Places.			
1841.	1851.	Males.		1841.	1851.	Males.		1841.	1851.	Males.		1841.	1851.	Males.	
Almondbury, Y W R	37,315	41,804	20,979	Easby, York, N R	771	863	443	Haverfordwest, Pemb.	4,601	6,580	2,845	Rowley, York, E R	507	498	219
Audlem, Chester	3,371	2,870	1,414	Eccles,* Lancashire	33,792	41,497	19,532	Haverhill, Sk & Essex	2,451	2,535	1,285	St. Hilary, Glamorgan	164	187	82
Aughton, York, E R	634	654	341	Elloughton, Y E R	712	555	272	Haverholme Priory, La	22	21	10	St. John Lee, Nthmpt	1,947	2,073	1,029
Aysgarth, York, N R	5,735	5,625	287	Elmley, Kent	42	131	78	Havering-atte-Bower	427	423	216	St. Olave Mary, Y N R	1,961	2,970	1,403
Bebington, Chester	5,008	10,016	4,531	Escob, Durham	510	1,293	709	Haveringland, Nk [Ex	160	143	72	St. Woollos,* Monmth	13,766	20,279	10,536
Beerley,* York, E R	8,730	10,058	4,774	Essendine, Rutland	152	239	134	Haversham, Bucks	283	280	143	Salisbury, Wilts	11,626	11,557	5,307
Birstall, York, W R	29,723	36,222	18,005	Feliskirk, York, N R	931	900	475	Hawes, York, N R	6,078	6,203	3,170	Salisbury, Wilts	1,499	1,530	808
Bolton,* Lancashire	73,905	87,280	42,810	Fewston, York, W R	2,118	1,479	813	Hawerby, Lincoln	87	85	43	Sherrif Hutton, Y N R	27,800	30,553	15,474
Bolton-le-Sands, Lanc	1,774	1,802	914	Flixton, Lancashire	2,250	2,064	1,008	Hawes, York, N R	1,611	1,708	851	Shoreham (New) Sus	21,517	23,719	11,145
Braithwell, York, W R	800	879	433	Forcett, York, N R	656	817	317	Hawthorn, Dorset	820	773	398	Shrewsbury, Salop			
Brecknock, Brecknock	5,354	6,070	2,959	Gilling (Richmond),	1,618	1,659	814	Hawkedon, Suffo k	339	359	189				
Bridlington, York, E R	6,070	6,846	3,317	Glossop, Derby	81	94	45	Hawkesbury, Gloucest	2,231	2,185	1,091				
Brinkburn, Northumb	208	225	118	Glossop, Derby	22,998	28,625	14,312	Hawkeswell, Essex	336	349	181				
Bromfield, Salop	658	682	331	Great Ryburgh, Nrfolk	521	596	288	Hawkhurst, Dorset	2,656	2,704	1,339				
Brotton	468	518	266	Hart, Durham [Essex	728	920	527	Hawkinge, Kent	146	129	71				
Burneston, York, N R	1,494	1,635	812	Hatfield Broad Oak,	1,968	2,034	1,042	Hawley, Hants	323	329	162				
Calverley, York, W R	21,039	24,487	12,209	Do. Pevere', Essex	1,383	1,344	685	Hawridge, Somerset	79	69	40				
Cardiff, Glamorgan	10,977	18,351	10,286	Hatford, Berks	123	115	70	Hawkhead, Lancashire	2,323	2,283	1,168				
Cardigan	2,925	3,876	1,638	Hatherleigh, Devon	1,882	1,710	819	Hawksworth, Notts	203	171	88				
Carrington, Lincoln	229	167	101	Hatherley, Down, Glos	212	240	109	Hawridge, Bucks	233	270	130				
Ceirchiog, Anglesey	160	171	81	Hatto, Up, Gloucester	22	40	19	High Hoyland, Y W R	2,757	3,345	1,615				
Chipping, Lancashire	1,675	1,625	838	Hathern, Leicesters	1,252	1,187	609	Hongham, Kent	1,256	1,936	933				
Cockerham * Lancast	3,320	2,510	1,356	Hatherop, Gloucester	358	275	191	Hull, York, E R	65,670	84,690	40,144				
Cockermouth, Cumbid	4,940	7,375	3,425	Hathersage, Derby	2,054	2,106	1,064	Hurworth, Durham	1,599	1,449	692				
Coedana, Anglesey	275	354	172	Hatley St. George, Co	136	158	129	Ilkerton, Derby	5,326	6,122	3,087				
Colechester, Essex	17,750	19,443	8,853	Hutton, Lincoln	203	197	107	Ilkerton, Derby	102	91	50				
Colva, Radnor	221	184	96	Do. Warwick	954	961	516	Kenderchurch, Herefd	296	282	141				
Convil-in-Eivet, Cmm.	1,651	1,711	819	Haugh, Lincoln	111	117	67	Kirby Sigston, Y N R	22,229	25,996	12,677				
Crewes, Chester	3,939	4,031	2,068	Haugham, Lincoln	916	971	491	Leigh,* Lancashire	6,875	7,661	3,775				
Croston, Lancashire	378	389	201	Haughley, Suffolk	161	129	51	Maiton, York, N R	1,371	1,517	769				
Cundall, York, W R	7,519	8,644	4,477	Haughton, Salop	77	78	31	Nafferton, York, E R	4,085	4,574	2,246				
Darfield, York, W R	11,877	12,453	5,754	Haughton, Nottingham	480	510	255	Newland, Gloucester	688	667	328				
Darlington, [Durham	3,583	3,563	1,847	Haughton, Stafford	1,518	1,403	691	North Otterington, Yk	60,109	72,357	35,430				
Darton, York, W R	914	1,050	544	Do-le-Skerne, Durhm	328	326	155	Oldham, Lancster [N R	1,015	1,111	516				
Delamere, Chester	244	208	113	Hankswell, York, N R	162	181	90	Osprege, Kent	3,137	2,926	1,470				
Dowlund, Devon	248	260	136	Hantboys Magna, Nk	42	26	14	Oving, Chester	8,126	10,107	4,814				
Downholme, Y N R	6,588	7,096	3,564	Do Parva, Norfolk	313	313	181	Pembroke, Pembroke	6,901	8,672	4,167				
Droitwich, Worcester	4,583	5,231	2,841	Haxton, Cambridge	2,101	2,416	1,157	Peterborough, Nthmpt	2,228	2,207	1,080				
Dronfield, Derby				Havay, Hampshire	39	51	29	Prestwich, Lancast	78,545	94,470	46,380				
				Haven Bank, Lincoln	417	422	200	Reading, Berks	18,937	21,456	9,961				
				Haveringham, Suffolk	101	103	56	Rosethorn, Chester	2,953	4,190	2,202				
				Haverat-Park, Y W R											

* Partly included in Newport.
† As parliamentary borough, it has 19,681 persons.

A LIST OF TOWNS INCLUDED IN PARISHES CONTAINED IN THE LIST, WITH THE PARISHES TO WHICH THEY BELONG.

Population.				Population.				Population.				Population.			
Names of Towns.				Names of Towns.				Names of Towns.				Names of Towns.			
1841.	1851.	Males.		1841.	1851.	Males.		1841.	1851.	Males.		1841.	1851.	Males.	
Accrington, Lancashire	7,481	Whalley		Longtown, Cumberl	2,142	Arthuret		Rowley, York, E R	507	498	219	Standish, Lancashire	8,686	8,59	4,493
Adpar, Cardigan	1,746	Llandyfryog		March, Cambridge	4,171	Doddington		St. Hilary, Glamorgan	164	187	82	Sudbury, Suffolk	5,718	6,04	2,899
Altringham, Chester	4,488	Bowden		Maryport, Cumberland	5,698	Cross Canonby		St. John Lee, Nthmpt	1,947	2,073	1,029	Tandridge, Surrey	674	594	302
Atherton, Lancashire	4,655	Leigh		Milford, Pembroke	2,837	Steynton		St. Olave Mary, Y N R	1,961	2,970	1,403	Terrington St. Cl., Nk	2,675	2,250	1,111
Blackpool, Lancashire	2,180	Bi-pham		Oldbury, Worcester	5,114	Halesowen		St. Woollos,* Monmth	13,766	20,279	10,536	Thornhill, York, W R	7,201	6,858	3,659
Byth, Northumberland	2,060	Earsdon		Ryde, Hants	7,147	Newchurch		Salisbury, Wilts	11,626	11,557	5,307	Waddington, Lincoln	1,122	1,325	659
Brackley, Northamp	2,157	St. J's & St. P's		Radnor, Radnor	2,345	N & O Radnor		Salisbury, Wilts	1,499	1,530	808	Walton, York, W R	254	245	141
Brentford, Middlesex	8,870	Hanwell and		St. Helers, Lancashire	14,866	Prestcot		Sherrif Hutton, Y N R	27,800	30,553	15,474	Wells, Somerset	4,607	4,736	2,178
		Ealing		Sheerness, Kent	8,549	Minster Shep		Shoreham (New) Sus	21,517	23,719	11,145	Wendens Ambo, Essex	347	421	215
Brentwood, Essex	2,265	Southweald		Sleaford, Lincoln	3,729	O & N Sleaford		Shrewsbury, Salop				Wenlock, Salop	19,774	20,58	10,186
Brigg, Lincoln	3,097	Wrawby		Southport, Lancashire	4,765	Not ascertain						Weston, Suffolk	211	243	111
Burnley, Lancashire	20,828	Whalley		Sowerby-bridge, YWR	4,365	Halifax						Worcester, Worcester	26,306	27,521	12,488
Caerwglu, Flint	719	Opie		Staly-bridge, Cr & Lnr	2,0760	Dukfield &									
Colne, Lancashire	6,644	Whalley				Ashton									
Congleton, Chester	10,520	Asbury		Stratford, Essex	10,586	West Ham									
Cowes, Isle of Wight	4,786	Northwood		Tranmere, Cheshire	6,519	Bebington									
Darwen Over, Lancast	7,020	Blackburn		Tredegar, Monmouth	8,305	Bedwely									
Hawlingden, Lancast	6,154	Whalley		Tunbridge Wells, Kent	10,587	Tunbridge Wells									
Heywood, Lancashire	12,194	Bury				Speldhurst									
Hindley, Lancashire	5,285	Wigan		Tylderley, Lancashire	3,608	Letch									
Hawth, Lancashire	2,104	Deane [worth		Ventnor,* Isle of Wight		Newchurch									
Hounslow, Middlesex	3,514	Heston & Isle-													
	5,051	Stockport													

* No return of the number of persons, except

* Municipal borough, 9,915.
† Parliamentary borough, 61,171.

* To include the town of Letch, 5,308.